The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 3, 1896.

The Week.

THE Republican politicians generally are opposed to doing anything in reference to the tariff before McKinley comes in. They do not want to risk the fruits of the recent victory by reopening that question immediately. If they continue in this frame of mind, the Dingley bill will not pass. To defeat it in a short session, when there is hardly time to pass the appropriation bills, is easy enough. It will defeat itself unless it has some very powerful backing. Still, there is a good deal of money in it for private interests, and we see signs that these interests are stirring. They do not want to wait for a general overhauling of the tariff, which may not come. In their view a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush. The Boston Home Market Club evidently shares these views. On the other hand, there is a growing opinion in Boston that there ought to be a permanent Tariff Commission. A resolution to this effect was offered to the Massachusetts Board of Trade at its last meeting by Mr. Edwin L. Sprague, which will come up at the next monthly meeting. Tariff Commissions have not been very successful heretofore, but Mr. Sprague's proposal may serve a useful purpose by furnishing a forum for Republican debate. The Tariff Commission of 1882 served that purpose, if no other.

If we turn to the South and West, we find other opinions about the bill. The wool-commission men of Philadelphia want it because it will throw back into their hands some profits which they have lost since foreign wools were put on the free list. The Ohio wool-growers want it if the duties on wool are increased to meet their views, but they do not want it in its present shape. Senator Morgan of Alabama wants it because it will punish the New England manufacturers and compel the people of the North to use more cotton to keep themselves warm. His interesting views are communicated in a letter to the Selma *Times*, in which he says that "a very high tax on wool would raise the price as compared with cotton, and give us a great market for our thick fleecy cotton goods, which can be made a quarter of an inch thick, as soft as silk, and very light." Although his heart is moved with pity for the poorer classes of the North, a tax on wool has never been alarming to him as a Southern man. Thus he and Judge Lawrence stand on the same platform at last, although for somewhat different reasons. Senator Dubois of Idaho, on the other hand, agrees with Senator Teller. He sees no reason for changing his position as an obstructionist of tariff legislation until something is done for silver.

As soon as the news of McKinley's election reached the Hawaiian Islands the cry was raised by the *Hawaiian Gazette* that the Republican victory was "the signal for opening the annexation campaign." Bryan's election would, of course, have given the same signal to the *Gazette*, as its preëlection comments showed. But the intention to make a dead set for annexation is unmistakable. Ex-Secretary Foster, who drew the Harrison snap-shot treaty of annexation four years ago, is just back from Hawaii, and is strong for annexation, though his arguments, as reported from Chicago, are neither coherent nor convincing. "The islands were never in a more prosperous condition," he says, which would seem to be a good reason for continuing, instead of extinguishing, their present government. But Mr. Foster meets this by saying that though the islanders have governed themselves so successfully for four years, they will not be able to do so "for any great length of time." That does not mean that the Queen could be restored, Mr. Foster hastens to add; she will "never rule again," and the people are all sound republicans, only, somehow, they will not be able to make the republic work. They can make it work just long enough to secure annexation, but not a moment longer. If this is a little intricate, Mr. Foster has one conclusive argument in reserve. If the islands are not annexed by the United States, they will be by "some other of the great Powers." But this appeal to jealousy, when self-interest is not clear, was so overworked four years ago, and has become so ludicrous by lapse of time, that we do not look to see it have much effect on a country and a Congress that show signs of being decidedly weary of Hawaii.

The signs are that Congress is not going to be quite so hilarious and precipitate about Cuba as it was last winter. A Presidential election just past instead of just to come usually cools off the unselfish ardor of professional patriots. Yet the subject will no doubt be much discussed and action of various sorts urged. We do not say that some kind of action will not be necessary soon, but we do say that the matter should be approached in a much more sober spirit than we see manifested anywhere. It is not a question of going to war "with a light heart," like Ollivier in 1870. There is small chance of a serious war with Spain. But the thing that should give us pause and make us grave is the prospect that our interference in Cuba will bring us speedily face to face with the enormously difficult problem of ourselves undertaking the government of that island. What provision for colonial administration have we anywhere in our system? How are we to assimilate vast new masses of illiteracy? What will the addition of six Cubans to our Senate do to exalt the character of a body now counting a Tillman, a Butler, a Quay, a Hill among its ornaments? These are some of the questions which ought to be filling the minds of our great authorities on how to do it in Cuba; but all their givings forth are of the way our ships could make the Spanish navy look silly, and so on.

"The atrocity of the war in Cuba," says a morning paper, "forces on this country the question whether there is such a thing as international morality." The filibustering newspapers generally seem to favor a war which does not hurt anybody except, perhaps, the combatants, and them not much. They seem to have forgotten some of the lessons of our own war and some of the sayings of our own most beloved and revered commanders. When Sherman was at Atlanta, he said, in reply to somebody's complaint, "War is cruelty. You cannot refine it." At a later period, long after the close of the war, he said in his abrupt way on some public occasion, "War is hell." Nobody need question Sherman's authority on that subject. There is a great outcry among those who advocate the use of rose water for suppressing rebellions, against Gen. Weyler's plan of denuding the province of Pinar del Rio of food supplies in order to starve out Maceo. Was it Gen. Grant or Gen. Sheridan who gave orders to strip the Valley of Virginia "so that a crow flying over it would have to carry his own provisions"? That is about what Gen. Weyler proposes for Pinar del Rio, yet we of the North thought at the time when Gen. Early made his raid upon Washington that that was the right way to prevent a repetition of it. It makes a great deal of difference whose ox is gored.

The most striking passage in Mr. Morgan's report as Treasurer of the United States relates to greenback redemption. During the fifteen months ending with September, he informs us, no less a sum than $192,972,205 in gold was paid out on presentation of greenbacks. That is to say, considerably more than one-half of all the greenbacks in existence were redeemed in those fifteen months. But will they stay "redeemed"? Oh, no. A wise Congress has ordered the Treasurer to put them all out again, and "redeem" them all over again as often as they are thrust in his face. For a nation that boasts of being "smart," and piques

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itself on its Yankee 'cuteness, this position is one of the most astonishing ever known. We practically advertise to all the world that if gold is needed anywhere, all that is necessary is to walk up to Uncle Sam's counter and get it. We furiously curse all who accept the invitation, and call them unpatriotic, yet we just as furiously curse those who propose to avert the continuance of the folly by cancelling the greenbacks as fast as redeemed. A great democracy taking a turn at finance must now and then excite laughter in Olympus.

A paragraph is going the rounds of the newspapers, for which nobody in particular seems to be responsible, to the effect that Russia has it in mind to call an international conference for the purpose of establishing a fixed price for wheat. The idea is that if the leading commercial and wheat-growing nations of the world would join, they could fix a price for wheat, to be maintained uniformly through various seasons of over-production and unsatisfactory crops, caused by drought or continual rain, and thus make the principal grain staple upon which the millions of consumers depend for food as unchangeable in value as gold. This is really a scheme to fix a ratio between wheat and gold, say 15,500 to 1. It so closely resembles the scheme of the international bimetallists that we strongly suspect that it was put out as a kind of international joke on Dr. Arendt, Mr. Balfour, and our friend Gen. Walker. The idea of a fixed ratio between wheat and gold is not intrinsically more absurd than one between silver and gold. The difference is one of degree, not of kind. Of course it is capable of indefinite extension. A ratio between corn and gold would be equally desirable and feasible, and, if preceded by a wheat-gold ratio, would *ipso facto* establish a ratio between wheat and corn. As this plan, once carried into effect, would put an end to "corners" in wheat, the speculators would oppose it, and they would cunningly begin by asking its advocates what particular ratio they proposed to establish. The latter would be justified by precedent in replying that they do not intend to be drawn into any such trap, and that there is no use in discussing that question until we know whether a sufficient number of nations will join to make the plan a success.

There are suggestions in nearly all States using the new ballot system for amendments in the law, but from no quarter does there come a call for a reversion to the old system. We have thus succeeded in getting rid of some of the worst influences surrounding our elections. The bulldozers and "heelers" have been driven from the polls for ever. Every man can cast an absolutely secret ballot now in all but a few Southern States, and can do it in a thoroughly civilized manner. But while the "heeler" and his work have been abolished, the politicians go on collecting money for the non-existing expense, much the same as if there had been no change. The candidates of the Republican party for office in this State at the last election paid in contributions to the State committee nearly $34,000; the Republican candidates for Presidential electors, an office which ought to entail no expense whatever, expended nearly $15,000, much of it through the State committee. Yet no real campaign was made and no large expense incurred. Our laws should be made more rigorous in regard to contributions and expenditures, and our reformers should devote themselves to this work now.

It is clearly the purpose of the Platt machine to give the new Governor, Mr. Black, no chance of following a doubtful course in regard to his relations to it. All its most notorious members are pushing themselves forward for places. If they receive what they are seeking, it will be as plain as a pikestaff that the new Governor is Platt's personal property. Such an appointment as that of Lou Payn for Insurance Commissioner could be interpreted in no other way than this. No Governor who was free to follow his own inclinations, with even the most superficial regard for his oath of office, would consent to give any kind of responsible office to Payn. He might just as well make Abe Gruber a Civil-Service Commissioner or Lauterbach a Judge of the Court of Appeals. It remains to be seen whether the new Governor is so indifferent to decent public sentiment as the Platt machine leaders think he is. They, of course, utterly despise that sentiment, but as he is a young man at the threshold of what may be a great career, he may be able to see the advantages of paying some respect to it.

The jubilee banquet in which Mr. Platt's election to the Senate is to be celebrated is already arranged for at Albany. A hall with a capacity of 3,000 persons has been engaged, and will be "floored over" for the occasion, and a great assemblage is promised. It is taken for granted that Mr. Platt's election is as good as accomplished, and the date for it is fixed at January 19. No discussion of his merits seems to be in progress anywhere, and none seems to be thought necessary. The fact is universally recognized that he has the "thing fixed," that the Republican members of the Legislature are in no danger whatever of voting for any one else, and that it is a waste of time to pretend that any such question as qualification for the place has anything to do with the matter. It is interesting to observe that not only is Platt virtually elected to the Senate this year, but Mr. Hackett, his chairman of the State committee, is booked for the next vacancy in that body, which will occur when Senator Murphy's term expires in 1899. Platt and Hackett would well fill the places held by Hill and Murphy.

A ray of hope dawns on us in the shape of the news that Mr. Joseph H. Choate is willing to stand for the senatorship, and that the reforming Republicans are ready to support him. It makes no difference whether Mr. Choate be elected or not. Every decent and intelligent man and woman in the State owes it to the American name to see that this great community, distinguished as it is in all the arts of civilization, does not allow its highest honors to be bestowed by a base and corrupt Legislature on one of its most contemptible members, without at least a protest. It will not do to have it set down in history that, after several years of experience of Hill and Murphy, the people of New York put Platt in the place of one of them when it got a chance. There has not been a better year since the Revolution than this to reaffirm the old principles on which the Government was founded. We were called on in 1861 to show the force of the republic and its capacity for material sacrifices. We are called on to-day to show its wisdom and its honor and its capacity for self-government. The Senate was intended by its founders to be composed of eminent men, famous for their "ability and integrity." For a long period New York sent such men to it. Since the war it has apparently been inclining more and more to the belief that the Senate was meant to be an assemblage of criminals and speculators. We cannot render better service to the country, therefore, than to show our children this year what the fathers of the republic had in their minds. When they founded the Senate, they meant that it should be filled by men like Mr. Choate. He is to-day our foremost man for political purposes, and it will be the greatest shame of this century, not if the Platt Legislature sends Platt in his stead, but if this old trickster be allowed to disgrace a great historic assemblage by his presence, without a word of protest from those of us who live in the hope of a better day.

The latest announcement by Mr. Croker is that he has decided, after looking the field over, not to remain with us for the next municipal campaign, but to return to Europe to look out for his racing interests. This would seem to imply a doubt as to the outlook for Tammany success next year. It was well understood in Tammany circles that the boss had returned because he began to realize the necessity of replenishing his private fortune; the large expenses of living, combined with unfortunate ventures on the race-track, having made heavy inroads upon his savings. Then, too, opportuni-

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ties for "speculating in real estate" are less plentiful abroad than they are here, and, as everybody knows, it was in "real estate" that Mr. Croker made his fortune. His conclusion seems to imply that the real-estate outlook is not more cheering in his opinion than the political outlook. We trust that this will not have a depressing effect upon the real-estate market, for it is not a fair test of the situation. It must be borne in mind that the real-estate conditions which enabled Mr. Croker to become enormously rich within four or five years were not ordinary ones. No ordinary ventures in houses and lots yield such sudden and fabulous profits as his did. Of course he is looking for like conditions again now, and the fact that he does not find them should not be regarded as foreshadowing a decline in values. It is barely possible, also, that the very large Republican majority in both branches of the Legislature, and the presence of a Republican Governor at Albany for two years longer, have had some effect in clouding the clearness of Mr. Croker's real-estate judgment.

The change of faith which has come over Mr. Nissen, a Civil-Service Commissioner of Brooklyn, is much like that which Gen. Collis, our Commissioner of Public Works, has experienced. Mr. Nissen entered upon his duties last January, and was not thought at that time to be friendly to the reform. He says frankly now that he had misgivings about his ability to "make a strict performance of duty consistent with his views on civil-service matters," that he had "believed, with many other people who have not fairly looked into the question, that there was considerable humbug about civil-service reform, and that the system was being extensively used for the protection and promotion of political favorites." He now says:

> "I have got bravely over my misgivings, and I will frankly say that, in my opinion, no honest man can make a study of the subject in all its various bearings upon public and political morals without the result of making him a conscientious and sincere advocate of true and practical civil-service reform."

He predicts that the proposed raid on the law will fail, because there is a popular sentiment in favor of strengthening rather than weakening the law, and that the public official who takes his stand in favor of the raid is doomed to political destruction. Our new Governor is likely to have this view of the matter pressed home to him in case the raid ever gets so far as to require his action to complete it.

Nearly two years and a half have passed since the Chicago riots took place which led to something like a riot on the part of Gov. Altgeld against the authority of the federal Government. It will be remembered that "President" Debs, the organizer of the strike and boycott out of which the riots grew, and which paralyzed industry all the way to the Pacific Coast, declared in a written manifesto that Pullman was engaged in "the devilish work of starving his employees to death." The fact was, however, that the Pullman Company was at that time manufacturing cars at less than cost in order to keep its men employed, and that the dispute between the company and Debs was whether the loss per car should be increased by an increase of wages at that juncture or not. One of the odd features of the affair was that the company closed its Detroit shops altogether, in order to keep the larger works at the town of Pullman going, but the closing at Detroit was never mentioned by President Debs as a grievance. The only thing worth rioting about was the question whether more money should be paid for wages and materials for car-building at Pullman than the buyers of cars would pay for the completed product, and whether Mr. Pullman should submit this question to arbitration. He took the view that a man who submits a business question to arbitration is bound by the decision of the arbitrators; and since he could not possibly pay the wages demanded under the existing circumstances of the market, there was nothing that he could submit to the decision of arbitrators. Then Debs issued his orders to railroad companies to stop hauling Pullman cars, and the riots began.

When Debs had been landed in jail for contempt of court, work was resumed at the town of Pullman, and the results of the fiscal year ending July 31, 1896, are now before us, in the last report of the Pullman Palace Car Co. Although it was a bad year for general business, the whole number of the company's employees was increased from 10,318 to 11,515, and the total amount of wages paid rose from $5,011,565 to $5,669,121. There was also a small increase of average wages during the year, *i. e.*, from $2.24 to $2.28 per day for journeymen mechanics. There was an increase of deposits in the savings bank of the town of Pullman of $133,042 as compared with the previous year, and the number of individual depositors increased from 1,683 to 2,222. These gains on the part of the workmen were made possible by an increase in the manufactured product of the car-works from $4,986.128 to $7,704,938. The low product of the fiscal year ending July 31, 1895, was due mainly to the strike itself, which began the last of June, 1894. These results ought to impair the future influence of Debs.

"I do not believe in adopting foreign rates of wages or foreign hours of labor" (cheers). This is not, as the shrewd reader infers, an extract from a Canton campaign speech. It is taken, rather, from an address recently made by the English Secretary for the Colonies before the Birmingham Chamber of Commerce. Mr. Chamberlain was discussing the question of German competition—that bogey which has been terrifying so many timid bimetallic and fair-trading minds in England. The Colonial Secretary had little difficulty in showing that the inroads of German on British commerce had been enormously exaggerated, and then went on to show that German success in foreign trade had come simply from applying the highest intelligence to it. It seemed to be a theory with many British manufacturers that consumers were sent into the world to take the goods which they (the manufacturers) made, and that there was no obligation upon the manufacturers to make the things the consumers wanted. The Germans had shown an underhanded willingness to consult the wishes, even the prejudices, of their customers. All this scarcely proved, as the Howard Vincent school asserted, that England could never make head against German competition except by going for protection and bimetallism.

The London County Council has been made the victim of an extraordinary fraud, which the London *Spectator* compares to Tammany's best efforts, but by which nobody appears to have profited. It seems to consist in the "cooking" of accounts by the employees, and the desire seems to have been simply to save the Council from charges of mismanagement and extravagance. To carry this design out they have transferred charges from one account to another, and charged for materials never used, so as to put a good face on the whole situation. But why they expected this never to be found out and exposed, does not appear. The trouble arose from what we call "bi-partisanship"—that is, the attempt to carry on work needing decision, energy, and administrative experience and ability, by a committee instead of a single head. Committees and bi-partisan commissions always differ, are generally at loggerheads, and are easily hoodwinked by subordinates. Subordinates get around some of them and "pull their legs," and the man whose leg is pulled feels flattered and stands by the man who pulls it, and feels bound to protect him against his colleagues, and his colleagues do not wish to quarrel about him, and so abuses go on until they become intolerable. This affair is extremely unfortunate for the County Council, for it has a host of enemies, and some very powerful ones, and its relations with laborers and contractors have long been a subject of indignant criticism from one party of taxpayers. It will probably result in some concentration of authority, for the leading feature of the scandal seems to be the impossibility of fixing responsibility for it on any one.

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NO FEDERAL ELECTION LAW.

THE Chicago *Times-Herald*, through its Washington correspondent, makes an announcement as to the probable policy of the new Administration, which contains the following passage:

"Men who hold confidential relations with the President-elect believe the coming Administration will mark the enactment of a new election law—not a 'force bill,' but a comprehensive statute designed to prevent a recurrence of such election frauds as those which have cursed a number of Southern and border States during past national campaigns."

There is only one thing to be said of such a policy as is here suggested—it would be an exhibition of political madness. Six years ago, as "leader of the House," Mr. McKinley helped to put the force bill of 1890 through that body, and if he could have had his way, it would have become a law. Happily it failed to pass the Senate, through an alliance between the Southern Democrats and free-silver Republicans of the West—the one good thing, by the way, that the nation has ever got out of the free-coinage agitation. The force-bill policy was an important element in producing the popular revolution of 1890 and 1892, which gave the Democrats the House of Representatives during the last half of the Harrison Administration, and then entire control of both branches of Congress. They signalized their supremacy by repealing all the federal election laws. This action was hailed by sensible Republicans everywhere, and particularly in the South. The force bill of 1890 had been opposed by more than one Southern Republican in the House.

The election laws were repealed in the early part of 1894. In the following November the Republicans carried Missouri, Tennessee, and West Virginia, and, through a fusion with the Populists, defeated the Democrats in North Carolina—these being in each case the first Republican victories since the end of the reconstruction era. In 1895 the Republicans carried Maryland and Kentucky. In all six of these States Republicans claimed and Democrats conceded that the change was largely due to the repeal of the election laws by the Democratic Congress and the abandonment of the force-bill policy by the Republican party, which rendered it impossible for the Democrats to solidify the whites, as of old, by an appeal to the race issue.

The Republicans, in their national convention last June, ignored the whole sectional question, and Mr. McKinley, in his letter of acceptance, gave what was universally understood to be a pledge that he would never again lend any favor to a policy looking in the direction of federal election laws. This pledge was accepted at its face value by the sound-money Democrats of the South. Without it, McKinley would surely have lost Kentucky, and he owed to it a large share of his majorities in Maryland and West Virginia, as well as the unusually large Republican vote in Tennessee, North Carolina, and other Southern States. Since the election Gov. Oates of Alabama, a representative Southern Democrat, has urged the Legislature to abolish the system of separate State elections in August, and consolidate those elections with the elections for federal officials in November, on the ground that "the federal election laws were repealed by Congress three years ago, and now no reasonable person apprehends their re-enactment, or the passage by Congress of a 'force bill.'"

For the McKinley Administration to push a federal election law—any kind of a federal election law—would be as gross a breach of faith as was ever committed by a victorious party. It would be as shameless a violation of a pledge as would be a movement by that Administration to promote the free coinage of silver. Every honest man who supported Mr. McKinley in the belief that he and the Republican party meant what they said they meant about this whole force-bill issue would feel outraged. The solid South has been visibly dissolving before our eyes during the past two years. The bringing forward of a new force bill—and any sort of a federal election law would be regarded at the South as a force bill—would drive the whites together again, and inject the hateful sectional issue into our national politics once more. Such a scheme would be nothing short of a crime.

The one thing that the South needs is to be let alone. "You will tell me," said Mr. Ewart of North Carolina to his Northern Republican colleagues in the House, six years ago, "that I am suggesting no remedy for the political state of affairs in the South. Yes, there is a remedy, and that is to mind your own affairs and treat the colored man of the South with 'wise and salutary neglect.'" This remedy has now been applied for some years. The beneficent effects are apparent. The recent national election was the fairest held since the war in many Southern States. Public sentiment in most States has already made great headway towards compelling honest returns of the ballots cast. In Tennessee and Virginia, where the worst frauds were committed, the decent elements in the community are becoming aroused to the necessity of a radical reform; and they will bring it about if only left to themselves.

If the Republicans live up to their platform and pledges, they can hope to carry several Southern States in 1898 and 1900. If they should be so mad as to attempt any sort of congressional legislation regarding elections, they would put the South and the nation back a dozen years. In a private letter, a prominent Palmer and Buckner Democrat in a Southern State, who has accepted the force-bill issue as dead, thus describes the situation in his State caused by its disappearance:

"The Solid South has vanished. The whites are at last divided. In my judgment, if the McKinley Administration shall live up to its promise not to attempt any federal election legislation, no political scheme will ever bring our people together again. Freedom of opinion is in the air."

BANKING REFORM.

THE *Evening Post* published on November 25 a thoughtful communication from Mr. Henry J. Ford of Sewickley, Pa., on the subject of banking methods and the need of a reform which will satisfy the people of the South and Southwest. It is quite true, as Mr. Ford says, that the people of those States and districts cannot understand why money should be scarce and impossible to get hold of in their communities when it is piled up in large and almost unusable amounts in the cities of the North. It is probably true that they will continue to vote for free silver, or free greenbacks, or anything else that is considered wild and heretical in the North, until some change in the banking system of the country is effected which they will consider a measure of relief.

Most of them look upon the 10 per cent. tax on the notes of State banks as the chief cause of their trouble. It is not "the crime of 1873" that makes them angry, but an earlier one, dating back to the war period. They have an indistinct recollection of the banks immediately before the war, which were fairly good in the South, although they had been preceded by an atrocious litter of wildcats in all those States, almost coeval with the federal Union. Anybody who will take the trouble to read Prof. Sumner's historical review of those institutions will justly consider all present evils of a financial kind as Elysian fields by comparison. Yet it is probably true that a repeal of the 10 per cent. tax on the notes of State banks would kill the silver heresy stone dead in every Southern State. It would cure all other financial heresies for the time being, in the same way that John Phoenix proposed to cure mosquito bites, by plunging the bitten part into boiling water. As soon as free banking under all sorts of State laws should have reached its full development, there would be a much worse condition of things than there is now, and the cry for bank reform would be much louder than before.

None the less is it necessary to undertake bank reform. The greenbacks must be got rid of. The Government must go out of the banking business. The gold reserve must be allowed to regulate itself under commercial, not political, influences. Yet Mr. Ford is right in saying that retirement of the greenbacks cannot be effected without putting something in place of them. Even though gold would flow into the vacuum, the process would be unobserved, its existence would be

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doubted, and hence it would be politically impossible. The people who need to be conciliated, and without whose co-operation no reform is possible, would say that the retirement of the greenbacks was another step on the part of the grasping national banks; that, having defeated Bryan, they were now trying to control the currency and "corner gold" again, and thus to collect back from the people the money they had paid to carry the election. This view is present to the mind of every member of Congress, Republican, Democrat, or Populist. There is no man with a livelier sense of the politics that lies in this question than Bryan himself. Nobody knows better how much is to be gained by fanning discontent with our present banking arrangements, and how much is to be lost by any measures which would quiet it.

It is certain that the country is in no mood for a return to the old miscellaneous sort of banknote issues which prevailed before the war, however pleasing that might be to the States south of the Potomac. If the evils surely attendant upon that system, or lack of system, could be confined to the States which believe in it and want it, the question would be very different. So, too, the proposed free coinage of silver would present a very different aspect if it could be restricted in its operation and effects to Kansas, Colorado, and other States that want it very much. Unfortunately, it is not possible to restrict the effects to any particular State or section. Silver dollars legal tender in one State must be legal tender in all. Any banking law passed by Congress must be valid in all the States. A repeal of the tax on State bank issues would open the door in New York as well as in Mississippi. Some States prohibit banknote issues other than national by their constitutions, but those provisions would not prevent the notes of other States from gaining entrance among their people. If Louisiana, for example, were allowed to issue banknotes under State laws, the notes would circulate in Texas, although the latter prohibits State-bank issues of her own. What serves for one must serve for all.

The practical question, therefore, is whether an amendment of the national banking law can be secured which shall keep the safeguards necessary to protect the people against wildcatting and yet make banking and banknote issuing profitable in those Southern communities where the silver craze, and the greenback craze, and the sub-treasury craze now predominate and threaten at every national election all that we hold dear. Mr. Ford mentioned in his communication the Scotch system of branch banks by which every nook and glen of the country is provided with banking facilities of the very best kind. While there is no fundamental objection to branch banks in this country, and while we have had some very successful examples in the past in the State banks of Indiana, Ohio, and Missouri, we must bear in mind that the Scotch system is the growth of more than two centuries, and that it cannot be transplanted to this country in time for the next election. Still, there is wisdom in the suggestion. National banks ought to be allowed to have branches in this country under certain conditions as to capital and public supervision.

The great thing to be done is to make banknote issuing profitable enough to induce capitalists to go to these bankless sections of the Union and supply them with the facilities now lacking. The present national banking law does not afford this profit. The public mind, the Granger mind, the Populist mind, is all wrong on this subject. The men who have money would be as glad to make money, say in Alabama, as anywhere if anybody would show them how. They would avail themselves of any facilities for issuing demand notes and giving "cash credits" according to the Scotch system if they could see a profit in it, but there is none (or none worth mention) if it is necessary to deposit $110 of bonds for every $90 of circulation obtained. The question now coming up is whether this feature of our banking system can be amended without giving the field to wildcats. Our Canadian neighbors seem to have solved this problem, in part, by borrowing the old safety-fund system of the State of New York. May we not do the same?

PLATT AND THE CIVIL SERVICE.

It has been evident to all persons interested in the reform of the civil service in this State, ever since the interpretation of the amendment to the Constitution by the Court of Appeals, that something would be done soon by the Platt politicians to get around, or, as they call it, "beat," the law. For it is one of the most extraordinary features of our present situation that the men who are actively engaged in managing our affairs, pass most of their time in trying to frustrate or defeat measures called for or forced upon them by public opinion. In fact, the complete separation between the class called "politicians" and the mass of the people in political ideals is one of the most interesting phenomena of the day. We were present in a small company of lawyers, immediately after the decision of the court, when the question of what Platt would do now came up for discussion, and one present immediately predicted the plan of making every department its own examiner, and giving the appointing officer full control of the eligible list. But it was not till six months afterwards that his prophecy was fulfilled by the appearance of an article in the *Sun* showing that there would be nothing unconstitutional in such a scheme, which revealed the fact that the Plattite brains were already at work on it.

We need hardly say that the scheme is an old one. The first demand for civil-service reform in Washington was met by an exactly similar arrangement. Each department was directed to examine its own candidates, and did so, but the result was, of course, laughable. No one presented himself except those the appointing officer called for, and the examination naturally allowed the men he wanted to pass without difficulty. Nobody who would be of much value would submit to such a farcical test, knowing he would not be appointed without "a pull." In fact, nobody would ever come to such examinations here except the Mikes, Jakes, and Barneys, for whom the Plattite appointing officers are now sighing. The steady growth since that period of the competitive system managed by independent boards, shows that the public speedily understood the Platt system and would have none of it. The extension of the competitive system by every President since President Arthur, and the unanimous testimony of departmental officers in its favor, prove that its success is assured. No more remarkable sign of its hold on the popular mind could be given than its submission to the popular vote in Chicago, of all places in the world, in April, 1895, when it was adopted by a majority of 45,000. No departmental officer in Chicago, Gen. O'Beirne will be sorry to hear, can now get "the men he wants." He must take the men provided for him by law.

Another very amusing episode in the earlier days of the civil-service reform agitation is recalled by the recent Platt movement. What is disturbing the Platt politicians, it appears, is that the examinations are not "practical" enough, and that, owing to their very literary and abstruse character, they are carried off by "college men." In the early seventies there used to be a vigorous stand made every now and then by the political class against examinations, sometimes because there were also examinations in China, but generally because the examinations were not "practical"—that is, did not let in more of the ignorant, shiftless "workers." One of their favorite illustrations of this thesis was that candidates for clerical places used to be examined about "the depth of the Polar Sea and the height of the walls of Timbuctoo." We were greatly amused, therefore, on Saturday by hearing from Chairman Hackett that

> "if a man is a candidate for a place on the police force or in the excise office, he doesn't think he should be asked to bound Timbuctoo or tell all about the government of Zanzibar. A man who has never heard of Timbuctoo or Zanzibar may make an excellent policeman or excise inspector. I think a man should be examined strictly on the duties he is expected to perform."

The last time we heard about Timbuctoo and Zanzibar was from the learned and vivacious Howard Carroll on the stump about 1882—"God be wid the good ould times," as Tom Brennan would say. The only answer needed to stuff of

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this sort was, of course, the publication of the rules and of the examination papers, which was often done, and disposed of both Timbuctoo, Zanzibar, and the Polar Sea. The utmost pains is and has always been taken by all Civil-Service Commissions to make the examinations strictly practical, and to make them bear directly on the duties of the place to be filled, as any one may satisfy himself by looking at the papers of any examination. It is hardly worth while to apply this remedy now. Our advice to Hackett or any politician who is troubled about want of "practicalness" in the civil-service system, is not to go to the Legislature, but to go to a physician. If he finds his mind wandering about Timbuctoo, Zanzibar, or China, the best thing to do is to take an anodyne, and get a good sleep with a wet towel round his head.

Another old friend, over which in years long gone we spent many a merry day, was the fondness of politicians for civil-service reform in the abstract, but dislike of "this particular measure." "Real civil-service reform," they all, like our eminent friend Abe Gruber, desired, but "this particular measure"—faugh! The reappearance of this trouble thirty years later is one of the drollest incidents of the present agitation. Civil-service reform, "the men we want," but no Zanzibar or Polar Sea.

And then the college men—what are we to do about these "college men"? The practical examination is "to give other than college-bred folks a chance." Well, in the last ten years, the applicants for admission to all the departments in the federal service in Washington were 169,522. Of these, alas! 140,017 came from the public schools, 10,980 from business, but the college rascals numbered 18,525; an appalling fact, which makes the future of the republic look dark indeed. Of these, 84,051 of the candidates from the public schools passed, 7,440 of the business candidates, and 12,764 of the college men. It will be seen that the college contingent was small after all, but think of our universities extending their pestiferous influence into the public service even in this degree. And there are men among us who are glad that our colleges are multiplying!

We have not by us at this moment the figures about the candidates in this State, but we believe the percentage of college men among the candidates is still lower here than in Washington. In fact, the agitation which has been started is so plainly the concoction of beaten men who see their doom approaching, that, even if they get their bill passed, the end is near. We warrant that Gen. O'Beirne will be sick of "the men he wants" before we get done with him.

THE STUDY OF GOVERNMENT.

THE academic study of government and administration, as subjects distinct from history and political philosophy, has only within a very few years begun to receive particular attention in this country. Here and there, to be sure, one could find a college whose curriculum accorded to the Constitution of the United States a certain amount of respectful attention: the formal phrases of the instrument had to be learned by rote, while its provisions were illustrated by comparison with the Articles of Confederation, and reference to striking events in our national history. But, however fruitful its results, this was, after all, essentially a study of government in theory rather than in practice. Whether the actual workings of the various departments of government were such as the text of the Constitution seemed to indicate, and whether there were not other factors of which that document said nothing, were questions seldom raised. Of study of European systems of government there was none, save the little that was inseparable from courses in so-called "constitutional" history. Some colleges still require a memorizing of the Constitution; others have sought to "enrich" the course of study by the adoption of a text-book on "civil government," in which comment on the sections of the Constitution *seriatim* is judiciously mixed with the history of the United States, and supplemented by meagre accounts of State and local administration. How largely these dry and lifeless methods have been discredited, and how broad a field is being opened to scientific investigation, a very brief examination of typical courses of instruction in government, now offered by leading universities in this country, will serve to show.

In addition to American constitutional law, most of our universities of the first rank now provide for the extended study of government and administration in the United States, national, State, and local, with emphasis upon practical operation as well as upon the legal or theoretical basis. As is the case with other courses in this department, the method of instruction is usually by lectures, supplemented by reading, special research, and personal investigation. The University of Chicago offers a course in the government of American States, and Johns Hopkins a course dealing generally with systems of local government. Elsewhere, local government seems to be included in the general courses, although separate courses are allotted to municipal government at the Universities of Michigan, Pennsylvania, Chicago, Columbia, and Yale. The government and administration of European countries is studied comparatively under a variety of titles, and, apparently, with somewhat different estimates of its importance. Columbia, for example, presents courses in the comparative constitutional law and comparative administrative law of the principal European States, with seminaria in administrative law and comparative legislation. Pennsylvania devotes separate courses to the constitutions of leading foreign countries, the text of the German Constitution being compared with the constitutions of the United States and Switzerland; public administration in leading foreign countries, especially in Germany; and a study of the existing governments of France and England. Johns Hopkins has a year's course in systems of administration in England, France, Prussia, Italy, and the United States. The courses at Chicago include the comparative constitutional law of France, Germany, Switzerland, Great Britain, and the United States, and federal government in the United States, Germany, and Switzerland; while Harvard provides an elementary half-course in constitutional government and a half-course in federal government, historical and comparative. Columbia, Pennsylvania, Michigan, and Yale have courses for the comparative study of municipal institutions.

This enumeration of representative courses will suffice to show the field of inquiry contemplated and the classification usually adopted. It does not, obviously, indicate all the work in government done by the institutions named. In some cases, further, the work is merged in that of other departments, particularly law and history, or in research in various fields. At Harvard, for example, where extended facilities in this department are not yet provided, seminary work in government is announced as included under seminary work in history, while the history of government in the leading countries is treated in the historical courses. It is probable, however, that everywhere such combination courses are much more historical than descriptive. But, however variously entitled, it is clear that progress in this new department has been rapid, and that the facilities now offered in this country for the study of actual political methods, both at home and abroad, are very considerable, comparing favorably, as far as they go, with those available in European universities.

That more extensive work is not carried on is due in part, no doubt, to the newness of the subject, and uncertainty as to its proper place in the university curriculum. There are numerous indications, also, that the broad and thorough study of government and administration is not yet widely cared for in the United States. The different extent to which the various universities have taken up the work is noticeable. At present only two institutions of the first rank—Pennsylvania and Chicago—attempt to cover systematically a large field; the others follow at irregular distances, while two or three offer so little as to suggest either limited resources or a depreciatory estimate of the importance of the subject. As a rule, the largest share of time is given to American government—a fact partially attributable, doubtless, to laudable patriotic interest, yet somewhat surprising when we remember that, in these same institutions, courses in European history greatly outnumber those in American history. The most obvious lack is that of courses dealing exclusively and in detail with the political institutions of any one foreign country. As for the comparative study of European government, it is limited, for the most part, to the constitutional and administrative law of Great Britain, Germany, and France, with the occasional inclusion of Switzerland, Belgium, and Italy. It does not appear that the political organization of Russia, the Netherlands, Austria-Hungary, Norway and Sweden, or Spain is anywhere particularly studied in systematic courses; nor have we noted a reference to detailed study of the Dominion of Canada, although its federal organization is, presumably, considered in connection with the comparative study of federal government. In general, we may say that the study of government in American universities is still, in most cases, general rather than specific, extensive rather than intensive, and not quite comparable, in either extent or thoroughness, to our work in the kindred field of history.

The literature of a subject is sometimes a very good indication of the kind and amount of popular concern about it. Up to the pre-

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sent time, it must be confessed, there is in English hardly more than the beginning of a literature descriptive of the political life of countries other than Great Britain and the United States. Discussion of any phase of the subject in the general periodicals is infrequent. Even in regard to the two countries just named, there is a real scarcity of accurate, scholarly, and usable publications. Next to American history, the history of England is probably most widely studied in this country; yet we do not possess a single book, treating of English political institutions, at all to be compared with Bryce's 'American Commonwealth,' or so well adapted to class-room use as Hinsdale's 'American Government.' On the other hand, the government of the United States has nowhere been treated so usefully as has that of Great Britain in the "English Citizen Series," or as that of France seems likely to be in the series now in course of publication under the title of "La Vie Nationale." For the comparative study of government, the well-known treatises of Burgess, Goodnow, and Wilson, reënforced now by Mr. A. Lawrence Lowell's recent work on 'Governments and Parties of Continental Europe,' stand almost alone. As far as the universities are concerned, the lack of books available for use as text-books may not, of course, be very serious, since with them the basis of instruction is usually the lecture with collateral reading. It may, however, serve as a partial explanation of the non-participation of the colleges in the study of government and administration. At present, few colleges in the United States offer in this department anything beyond a brief course in American government, and most do not do even that. Whether constitutional and administrative law are suitable subjects to be included in the college curriculum, admits no doubt of argument; but it is clear that the absence of a sufficient literature would act as a decided limitation on the work, even if the colleges were disposed to undertake it.

GEN. TROCHU'S MEMOIRS.—II.

PARIS, November 18, 1896.

WHEN Trochu returned to Paris, after the death of Marshal Bugeaud, to whom he seems to have been attached by the strongest ties of gratitude and of admiration, the first visit he received in his small apartment was, as I have said, from an aide-de-camp of Prince Louis Napoleon. The Prince, who was President, offered him a place on his military staff, in memory of Marshal Bugeaud. Trochu at once put on his uniform and went to the Élysée, where he was introduced to the Prince. He thanked him for the proffered honor, but asked permission not to accept. He owed his advancement, his position in the army to two men, General Lamoricière and Marshal Bugeaud. At the deathbed of Bugeaud he had taken the resolution never again to accept any position on the staff; he wished to take his place in the ranks of the army. He desired to be no longer in evidence.

Lamoricière had, in fact, been the first protector of Trochu; it was an act of courage to pronounce his name before Louis Napoleon. Lamoricière was among those who were arrested on the night of the Coup d'État of December 2, with Gen. Bedeau, Gen. Le Flô, and others, and sent into exile. Trochu never concealed his indignation and his profound sorrow at what he calls the "great military captation which preceded the Coup d'État," and which has recently been related, in all its details, with a sort of cynical sincerity, in the Memoirs of Gen. Fleury, a part of which has appeared in the *Revue de Paris*.

"Let those," writes Trochu, speaking of the Coup d'État, "who knew me in my youth, ask themselves what I would have done if, as aide-de-camp of Prince Napoleon, I had become an instrument, an accomplice, or merely a subordinate actor in those great political saturnalia!"

In saying to the Prince-President that he wished to return to the ranks, Trochu did not say all; in the election for the Presidency, he had cast his vote for General Cavaignac, for whom he had always felt the greatest respect. He could not enter into daily relations with his too fortunate competitor. The Prince received Trochu's refusal in his usual kind way; he did not seem ruffled, asked him to reflect, and left him entire liberty of reflection and of action. Trochu did not reflect long; an hour afterwards he was at the War Department, asking for letters of service. The Minister was very angry at his decision, and showed much temper. Trochu heard him in perfect silence; he felt himself free. "Never," he says, "did Providence serve me better than on this occasion."

Those who lived through that period cannot but feel much sympathy and admiration for a man, accustomed to military obedience, yet led by a virtuous instinct to refuse honors which he felt to be full of dangers.

"Victrix causa diis placuit, sed victa Catoni."

Trochu was not on the side of Louis Napoleon; he was on the side of Cavaignac, which was, at the time, the side of law and legality. After the Coup d'État, the Minister of War, Marshal Saint-Arnaud, who had known Trochu in Algeria and knew his worth, invited him to occupy an important post in the Ministry of War. Trochu refused. The invitation was replaced by a written order, and he had to enter upon functions which were very complex, as they comprised the services of the infantry, the cavalry, the gendarmerie, the staff, the military schools, the recruiting, military justice. He spent a whole year in mastering all these organizations; he had soon an occasion to show his independence of character. The Emperor had decided to place the gendarmerie in the Department of the Interior instead of the Department of War. The gendarmes, in this system, ceased to be soldiers, and belonged in reality to the police. Trochu would not admit such a change; the French gendarmerie is very much respected in the provinces, and it enjoys this reputation, which has survived all our revolutions, from the fact that the gendarmes are all recruited from the army by a very careful selection; the gendarmerie is, in reality, the élite of the army. Trochu felt that if it became merely a corps of police, it would lose its prestige. The Minister of War withdrew his project (he was still Saint-Arnaud, who was a thorough soldier); he felt the force of Trochu's arguments, and the gendarmerie preserved its ancient organization.

Napoleon, on arriving at power, pronounced at Bordeaux the famous formula, "L'Empire, c'est la paix"; but everybody in Europe felt that the new empire needed the baptism of war. The occasion was furnished by the eternal Eastern question. In 1852 some misunderstanding arose between the Porte and the Emperor Nicholas; the year after, diplomatic relations were interrupted between Constantinople and St. Petersburg, a Russian army entered the Principalities, and the Turkish fleet was annihilated at Sinope. A general war became imminent.

"The Emperor Napoleon," says Trochu, "was penetrated with the belief that the appearance of the imperial eagle on our flags was, for the French army, the permanent consecration of victory in the eventual wars of the future. This sort of Napoleonic fetishism explained itself in theory—in sentiment, if you like—by the splendid victories of a past of which the Emperor was the heir and the representative among us. Practically it was unjustifiable, full of dangers; and I affirm (contenting myself with viewing in its broad aspects the destiny of the Second Empire) that this fetishism was to be and became the most efficient cause of its downfall and of our ruin. This incurable and fatal blindness had overtaken the Emperor, the court, the military entourage, the ministers, everybody to a certain extent, sometimes through conviction, more often by imitation and by fashion."

Two formulas were in many mouths: the first was, "We have the first army in the world"; the second was, on the eve of a war, "We are ready." To do justice to Trochu, he did not wait for the time of our disasters to protest against this dangerous optimism. Nobody knew better, at the beginning of the Eastern difficulties, that we were not ready. "At the end," he says, "of January, 1854, two months after the catastrophe at Sinope, no question had been put to us as to the state of military matters." Trochu, with some other directors of the War Department, had to take the initiative, and they prepared among themselves, unofficially, so to speak, plans for the formation of an army destined for the East. Every detail of the plan was well studied, and thus it was that in a very short time the nucleus of the corps which was to operate in the East was prepared, and that afterwards this nucleus was increased into a real army, composed of three divisions of infantry, one division of cavalry, with the necessary artillery and the administrative services.

Saint-Arnaud, who was the commander of the French army, took Trochu for his first aide-de-camp.

"My dear Colonel," said he to him, with a sort of solemnity, "I know where I am going. I have a malady [angina pectoris] which is still intermittent, and which allows me a little more life; but I have it from a doctor who had the courage to tell me the truth, that it does not pardon. If the thing is to get worse, I would rather die among my soldiers than in my bed. . . . But my health may fail, and I need near me an auxiliary on whom I can count. You will be this auxiliary."

Trochu had often judged with severity the adventurous life of Saint-Arnaud, but he could not be insensible to such an appeal. "Providence," he says, "recompensed Saint-Arnaud by allowing him to end his life, as he had wished, among his soldiers." Saint-Arnaud, by a miracle of will, was able to superintend the landing of the army in the Crimea and to witness the battle of the Alma. The Marshal died a fortnight afterwards.

The Italian war was even less carefully prepared than the Crimean war. In 1859 Trochu, who had become brigadier, was discharging at the ministry the function of member of the committee of the general staff. "None of us," he says, "believed in a war"; but a few words spoken on New Year's day by Napoleon to Baron Hübner, the Austrian Ambassador, convinced everybody that a war was imminent. Without entering into details, it is enough to say that Trochu shows clearly that there was no preparation for a great campaign, that everything had to be improvised. The Emperor counted upon his "star." He gained much easier victories in Italy than in the Cri-

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mea, and he became even more confirmed in an optimism which had in the end such disastrous results.

The first volume of the Memoirs of Trochu is devoted to an account of his military career up to the year 1870, and the exposition of his views on "The State, Society, the Army." The second volume is consecrated entirely to the war of 1870, and particularly to the siege of Paris. As such, it will remain among the most valuable documents on the war. It was no easy task for Trochu to preserve order in a city which was exasperated by a long siege; to maintain his authority over the National Guard, which was all but worthless as a military force, but which was very dangerous as a revolutionary force. He had only two regiments of regulars, and the sailors placed in the forts, on whom he could really depend; also a few battalions of Breton mobiles, who were faithful to him as a Breton. His only hope lay in the arrival of Bazaine's army, and after the surrender of Metz this hope was gone; he never believed much in the arrival of a second army, knowing well that the organization of it required more time than he had at his disposal. He tried, however, to the end to foster in the Parisian population a confidence which had nearly forsaken him. He does ample justice to the courage and the resignation of the Parisians, when, at the end of the third month of the siege, the bombardment of Paris began. During this bombardment he visited periodically the forts and the quarters on the left bank of the river, which suffered particularly.

"Going at my horse's pace through the groups of poor emigrants who, leaving the outskirts immediately bombarded, took refuge in the centre of the city, amidst terrible cold, I acquired proof that the besiegers completely failed in their plan of destroying the morale of the besieged. They were irritated, but not cast down. As I was following the Chaussée du Maine towards the ramparts, a tall woman, with gray hair, who seemed to have some authority there, screamed to me loudly: 'C'est toi, Trochu? Eh bien, va toujours!' And I was moved. This woman of the people gave me everything in a word — consolation, encouragement, recompense. She had in her unconsciously a force which I believe is now disappearing—patriotism devoid of any personal interest, any political interest."

Trochu modestly adds: "I feel authorized to say that if I have not done great things, I have seen great things."

After the war Trochu was elected Deputy to the Constituent Assembly by ten departments. He had not put himself forward as a candidate; he had resolved to retire into private life, but he was induced by his friends to take his place in the Assembly, which was obliged at once to set about the reorganization of the French army. When he reached Bordeaux, where the Assembly first met, Jules Favre, Minister of Foreign Affairs in M. Thiers's first cabinet, offered him, in the name of the head of the executive power, the rank of Marshal of France. Trochu declined an honor which, in his opinion, should be the reward of victory alone. He declined afterwards the command of an army corps. He did not remain long in the Assembly, where he took his seat among the monarchists, and he retired to Tours, where he spent the last years of his life.

Correspondence.

WASHINGTON'S LIBRARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Boston Athenæum possesses an interesting collection of over 300 volumes from the library of George Washington. These were acquired in 1848 from Henry Stevens for $3,800, subscribed by about seventy gentlemen in Boston, Cambridge, and Salem. A careful catalogue of these books has recently been compiled by Mr. A. P. C. Griffin, formerly of the Boston Public Library and now of the Lenox Library in New York. He has examined all of Washington's letters in the State Department at Washington, in Philadelphia, Boston, and elsewhere, and made notes of all passages in them relating to his books and the conditions under which they were obtained. The catalogue, which will shortly be published, includes, in addition to the books which were owned by Washington, a number of others formerly belonging to Judge Bushrod Washington and other members of the family, and the large collection of Washingtoniana which the Athenæum has gradually collected.

It is intended to add, in an appendix, the list of Washington's books as given in the appraiser's inventory filed in the Orphans' Court of Fairfax Co., Virginia. This list shows about a thousand volumes, and most of the books in the Athenæum collection can be identified on it in spite of the brief and imperfect titles given. I am anxious to trace the whereabouts of any of the other volumes, many of which have been sold at auction within the last ten years, and I shall be extremely obliged to any one who will kindly communicate any facts in his possession in regard to the present ownership of any of these books.—Very truly yours,

Wm. C. Lane, Librarian.

Boston, Mass., November 30, 1896.

THE CAMEL IN AFRICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The learned reviewer of Sayce's 'Egypt' asks (p. 350) what naturalists have "shown that the camel was not introduced into the northern coast of Africa until after the beginning of the Christian era." Whoever those "naturalists" may be, they are little acquainted with the facts. Cæsar took twenty-two camels from Juba half a century before the Christian era (*Bell. Afric.*, 68). The Louvre possesses a terracotta statuette, representing a camel, which was found in Cyrenaica, and belongs to the *second* century B. C. The real question is, whether or not the camel was of common use in the Barbary States (Tunis, Algeria, Morocco) before the *Byzantine* period. I have collected much evidence on the subject, both literary and monumental, in a paper entitled "Africain sur son chameau: terre cuite trouvée à Hadrumète," which I published in the "Collections du Musée Alaoui" (Paris, 1890, p. 33). Allow me to refer your reviewer to that exposé of the problem, to which I have nothing essential to add.—Truly yours, Salomon Reinach.

St. Germain-en-Laye, November 17, 1896.

SLAVIC STUDIES AT HARVARD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Through the efforts of the lamented Prof. F. J. Child and Dr. A.C. Coolidge, provision has been made for the study of Slavic languages at Harvard University. Probably no better proof can be given of the necessity for such a chair than is furnished by the fact that it was found advisable the very first year to offer three courses, in Russian, Polish, and Old Church-Slavic, all of which are now actually taught. There have also come assurances that advanced courses will be asked for next year. In reply to the several inquiries as to the facilities offered here for the study of Russian, etc., a short statement of what is to be found in the University Library will, therefore, not be out of place.

Prof. Child created for the Library a folklore collection such as exists, probably, nowhere else in the world. This collection contains about seven hundred volumes of popular songs in every language and dialect of the Slavic family. These offer an inexhaustible source for linguistic and literary studies. The publications of the Historical and Archæographical Societies of Russia, Poland, Servia, Bohemia, of which the Library has complete sets, subserve the same purpose. Similar matter will be found in the publications of the Academies of St. Petersburg, Vienna, Cracow, Agram.

For philological purposes there are complete sets of the leading philological Slavic journals published in Germany, Russia, Poland, as well as the large collections of acta and monumenta of the several Slavic universities and academies. Through the munificent gift of Dr. A. C. Coolidge of nearly 3,000 Slavic volumes, we now possess all the most important philological and historical publications of all Slavic countries. This collection is especially rich in Polish literature. In all, not less than 6,000 volumes, which are now being placed compactly together as a Slavic collection, are available for historical, philological, and literary studies. The Russian literary material is rather weak, but we expect this year an addition of 300 volumes, and further gifts will not fail to come with the growing interest for Slavic studies at Harvard. The Boston Public Library has lately added 300 Croatian works to its Slavic books, and the trustees have passed an order for the purchase of some 600 volumes of Russian and Polish classics. It is a noteworthy fact that a former Harvard student sent last year to the Harvard Library a rich collection of Nihilistic literature; this will shortly be made complete by another gift of all such works as are not contained in the first, so that we shall have here a unique source for the study of Nihilism in Russia.

Leo Wiener,
Instructor in the Slavic Languages.

Harvard University, November 28, 1896.

HIGH SCHOOL AND GRAMMAR SCHOOL

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As a schoolman I have been deeply interested in the whole subject of Elementary English in the Schools, both as presented in your paper and as discussed in the community at large. Personally I am one of those who acknowledge that there is fault in our teaching, and I also believe that the fault in this particular line of work is due to our colleges.

Prof. Dillard's charge, throwing the responsibility back upon the grammar schools, might be answered by teachers, as indeed it is answered by many, by pushing the responsibility back still farther, and placing it upon the primary schools, and yet again upon the homes. In truth, much of the fault does lie at the parents' door; but that by no means relieves the teacher, for his work is to overcome bad home training in this matter as in many others. My own observation (corroborated by others competent to judge) is that the language work in the grammar schools

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is of a higher character and the results relatively more satisfactory than in the high schools. The number of subjects, of which he complains, does not interfere with the language work, or good work in any subject, provided the school has a good teacher. In fact, it is well known that those schools that neglect the so-called enrichment branches are doing the poorest work all along the line.

The reasons why this is so are simple. The lower schools can correlate their studies as the high schools cannot. The lower schools do not have the "college requirements" standing before them as a bar to good, honest teaching; and consequently they direct their efforts to child development rather than to stuff so much of this, that, and the other into the pupil in a given time that he may *pass an absurd examination*, that seldom reveals power and not always acquirements. The lower schools are looking for teachers who not only possess scholarship, but who also have a *special training* for their work; while the high schools have in the past certainly looked for scholarship only. The lower schools have responded to the needs of the time, and have adapted themselves to the social and economic changes, while the high schools are still under the bondage of an educational system centuries old—a system, by the way, that the colleges perpetuate and force upon all schools sending pupils to them.

ELMER L. CURTISS,
Superintendent of Schools.

HINGHAM, MASS., November 23, 1896.

CITIZENSHIP IN THE GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your columns have of late teemed with complaints about the inability of the American youth to write good English in his examination papers in applying for admission to college. The complaint is doubtless just, and the root of the evil lies probably in the inefficient teaching of English in the high and grammar schools. But, bad as this is, there is a still greater crime that must be laid at the doors of our elementary schools, and that is the utterly inefficient teaching of citizenship for American youth.

Speaking for the Middle West, it may be said without fear of contradiction that the average citizen, the ordinary voter, the "plain man," never enters a high school, and he gets all his training from the grammar school. In his youthful, plastic period he learns reading, writing, spelling, grammar, some geography, a little history, and much (useless) arithmetic. We are of late perhaps getting away from the old style of learning in geography the names of capes and mountains and bays and rivers exclusively, but there is much to be learnt in the way of routes of commerce and the achievements of man on the face of the earth. In history there is a visible tendency to break away from date-memorizing, campaign-following, and statistics of battles, but in many quarters there is a grievous tendency to teach only American history—and Jingo history at that. It is not, perhaps, too much to say that probably there is not one school in fifty where the true history of the war of 1812 or the Mexican war is honestly taught. In some of our schools an attempt is made to teach English history in the last year of the grammar school, but in too many cases the most stress and energy is devoted to the mediæval and mythical periods of English history. That leaves almost no time for the great democratizing movements of later years. However, any history of England at all is better than none to awaken in the American youth's consciousness the idea that there are other nations on earth besides ours. A better course would undoubtedly be to take in something of the recent movements in Germany, France, and Italy. The history of Europe for the last hundred years would be extremely fruitful to the average child in counteracting the narrow, exclusive ideas of Americanism indigenous in a community so isolated and so far removed from the centres of culture as is the West of America.

Still, on the whole, there is a manifest improvement in the common schools in the line of history and geography teaching, and one ought to be thankful for half a loaf under certain conditions. But the one thing needful, the *sine qua non* of American citizenship, without which a republic constituted as is ours is hopeless, is not taught at all; and that is political science, science of government, or political economy, or whatever you choose to call it. What I mean is our understanding of the purpose, functions, and duties existing reciprocally between the citizen and his government, and between his government and other governments, together with a knowledge of the elementary laws of the production, exchange, and distribution of commodities among men. It is true that, in a scientifically arranged course of study for a candidate for the degree of bachelor of arts, such topics could be more adequately discussed in college; but I must repeat that the average man with us, the man who shapes our nation's policy, does not go to the high school even, and it is a question again of half a loaf or no bread; and, while a youth of fifteen might not discuss so broadly as he could at twenty the following topics (which, at the risk of seeming schoolmasterish, I will suggest), I cannot but believe that the habit of thought, once formed, would make him a less willing prey to the wily demagogue that he is sure to meet later in life:

"Why do we delegate part of our rights and powers as citizens to men whom we select for that purpose? Why must we have a government, and what is the purpose of that government? If we were stockholders in a street railway, for instance, on what principle should we select officers? Why not attend to all their duties ourselves? In choosing a board of directors what qualifications should we insist on? If we knew a 'real good fellow,' who was, say, a fairly good oiler in the engine-room, who could take a drink with the boys, tell a good story and belonged to our neighborhood, why not put him in charge of the entire electric plant because he was such a good-natured man and a friend of ours? Or if we had in our employ a motorman who attended strictly to business, never ran over people, was always on time, was exemplary in conduct, did our work faithfully, and never cost us money for careless accidents—if he had held the job for a couple of years, why not lay him off and put in a new, untried man off the farm, because the job was a well-paying one and he needed work, and the other fellow ought not to keep a good thing all the time?

"Or, again, if our railway stock was quoted on the market at 95, could our board of directors vote it worth 150? If they did, what effect would such a proceeding have on the market value of that stock? Or suppose that, being in financial straits, our company should pay their bills with written promises to pay, and suppose that, in course of time, their creditors and the men's creditors should refuse to accept these promises at their face value—would the fact that our board of directors voted never so solemnly that the promises were worth a hundred cents on the dollar make them so in the markets of trade? If not, why not?

"Now, then, institute a comparison between a small corporation (explaining what a corporation is), like a street railway, and a large corporation, like the United States."

Similar questions could be asked and answers discussed on such subjects as money, currency, the doctrine of demand and supply of wheat, for instance, and the elementary principles of international law, even in the grammar school. The elementary principles of these large-sounding subjects are, as Langdell said of the common law, few and simple. Once mastered, only common sense and common honesty are required to put them in operation. It is perhaps hopeless to expect to do anything with the adult population of the Southern and extreme Western States that voted for national repudiation and dishonor in the last election, but there is hope for the rising generation if the common schools do their duty. Kansas, with its large percentage of voters who have attended American schools and do attend American churches, is probably not vicious at heart, not more dishonest than other parts of the country. The unfortunate political condition of Kansas is the direct result of the kind of teaching that the adult generation of Americans got from the public school twenty years ago. Jingoish ideas of America's past and future, ignorance of the experience and possibilities of foreign countries, ignorance of modern methods of commerce and finance, combined with isolation from the centres of culture and aloofness from the large affairs of life, will produce in any community the bad preëminence which at present distinguishes Kansas.

E. L. C. M.

CHICAGO, November 25, 1896.

Notes.

A. C. McCLURG & Co., Chicago, will speedily publish 'Eating and Drinking,' by Dr. Albert H. Hoyt.

Additional announcements by D. Appleton & Co. are 'Prehistoric Man and Beast,' by the Rev. H. N. Hutchinson; 'The Struggle of the Nations: Egypt, Syria and Assyria,' by Prof. G. Maspero; 'The Story of Extinct Civilizations in the East,' by Robert E. Anderson; 'Ancient Greek Literature,' by Prof. Gilbert G. A. Murray; 'The Aurora Borealis,' by Alfred Angot; and 'Some Masters of Lithography,' by Atherton Curtis, illustrated by twenty-two photogravures.

Lemcke & Buechner will shortly publish a new novel, 'Barbara Blomberg,' by Georg Ebers.

R. H. Russell & Son send us two collections of drawings, republished from *Life* and other periodicals, 'In Vanity Fair,' by A. B. Wenzell, and 'Pictures of People,' by Charles Dana Gibson. Both sets are very familiar to us all, but the cleverness of the one artist with the brush and the other with pen-and-ink is often made more conspicuous by the increased size of the present reproductions, which must closely approach that of the originals. Sometimes, indeed, there is an apparent loss of delicacy from the same source,

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the drawings being too large and seemingly coarse for the near inspection their place in a book invites. Seen upon a wall, as pictures, there would be nothing but gain.

The same firm publish 'Posters in Miniature,' a book with almost as little text as those just mentioned, having only a very brief "Introduction" by Edward Penfield, the well-known designer of posters for Harper & Brothers. It has the advantage, for Americans, of containing a larger selection of American examples than any book on the subject we have seen, but not all these are of very high class, while the reproductions are, as a whole, rather indifferent. Only the pure black-and-white pieces come out really well.

Macmillan Co. publish two books on artistic anatomy, 'Anatomy [Human] for Art Students,' by Prof. Arthur Thomson, and 'Studies in the Art Anatomy of Animals,' by Ernest E. Thompson. The latter is rather an atlas of plates than a book in the ordinary sense, the text being confined to a minimum of comment and explanation. The plates should prove valuable, especially to sculptors of animal life. A new feature, so far as we know, and an interesting one, is the introduction of plans of hair-growth. The dog, the wolf, the fox, the cats (great and small), the horse, the ox and buffalo, the sheep, the dromedary and camel, and several types of bird, are fully treated, most space being given to the dog and horse, while several other animals are briefly treated of in the text, but without plates.

Prof. Thomson's book is, on the contrary, though profusely illustrated, an elaborate treatise on human anatomy as it affects external form. Prof. Thomson is lecturer on Anatomy at South Kensington, and his experience has taught him to understand the requirements of art students. We have been able to give the volume only a cursory examination, but that has convinced us that his method is, in the main, the right one. There is perhaps too much of detail for the average art student, but the point of view is constantly that of the student of form, not that of the student of function. Until the ideal book for students of drawing shall be written (when it is, it will be written by a painter), this may be recommended as an approximation to it. The illustrations from photographs from nature are perhaps better than anything could be but expressly prepared drawings by a master of the human figure. One wonders, however, if the greatest works of painting and sculpture might not be drawn upon with advantage for this purpose.

A welcome should be sure for 'Jean François Millet, his Life and Letters,' by Julia Cartwright (Mrs. Henry Ady), of which the London publishers are Swan Sonnenschein & Co., and the New York publishers the Macmillan Co. Mrs. Ady has thoroughly assimilated all the material at her disposal, and has produced a sound and painstaking piece of work, which corrects in some particulars the impression given by Sensier. Her own critical remarks are fairly good, but the criticism given in extracts from Millet's own letters is all that is essential, and is of the grave and splendid kind we know so well. The nine illustrations are beautifully rendered in photogravure, and paper and print leave little to be desired. The book is emphatically one to be desired by admirers (and who is not one?) of the great peasant-painter of Barbizon.

Mr. Cecil Torr's recent volume, 'Memphis and Mycenæ' (Cambridge [Eng.] University Press; New York: Macmillan), is addressed to the refutation of the assertion that "the Mycenæan age in Greece can definitely be fixed at 1500 B. C., or thereabouts, on the strength of evidence from Egyptian sources." An examination of this evidence leads to the discovery that the proof consists of two propositions: one, that the Mycenæan age was contemporary with a portion of the eighteenth Egyptian dynasty, and the other, that the date of certain kings of the dynasty approximated 1500 B. C. The discussions that follow are highly detailed and quite technical, so that they are of particular interest only to specialists, but the off-hand judgment of any one acquainted with the uncertainties of Egyptian chronology will be that, if the second proposition is an essential part of the proof of the view here sought to be controverted, the view has small chance of ultimate acceptance. The author's contribution to "an examination of Egyptian chronology and its application to the early history of Greece" would be more valuable if he had examined with care the sources whence his material was derived; but just this he admits that he has not done.

It is a great pity that Augustus Le Plongeon, M.D., who enjoyed great advantages for the exploration of the Maya country of Yucatan, did not confine himself to the task of adding to the world's stock of real knowledge when he sat down to write 'Queen Móo and the Egyptian Sphinx.' He starts with the assertion, "In this book I offer no theory," but his statements of fact with regard to the Mayas are so mixed up with fanciful and absurd assertions with regard to things Egyptian, not to mention China, India, Babylonia, and the four quarters of the earth, that one can with difficulty extract from them any real contribution to Maya history or archæology. His pictures are good, valuable as far as they go, and no doubt there is more or less of sound material to be found in the book if one had the time to search for it, but life is short, and the book is an octavo of nearly three hundred and fifty pages. We have stumbled upon some delicious bits of information about Egyptian archæology, and may be permitted to mention two of them. The claim is put forward, apparently with all seriousness, that the Egyptians learned the use of determinatives in their pictorial writing from the Mayas. The real fact is, that in this particular we are able to follow, more clearly than in any other, the internal development of the hieroglyphic system. At another place we are told that the Maya word "*Canob* signifies the 'Four,' the 'strong,' the 'mighty,'" and are then soberly informed that "From the Maya *Canob* the Egyptians no doubt called *Canopi* the four vases in which were deposited the entrails of the dead." The author does not seem to be aware that the word was not so used till the opening of the present century, and then only as the result of a misunderstanding. Even if this were not the case, the absurdity of the "theory" would not have to be pointed out to any one with even a rudimentary knowledge of Greek mythology or Egyptian antiquities. The list of the authorities cited by the author is a veritable curiosity. It ranges from the Book of Genesis, the Acts of the Apostles, and the 'Rig-Veda,' to "Dr." Paley and Ralph Waldo Emerson. But the names of Maspero and Petrie, not to mention a host of others, are conspicuous by their absence. The book is published in this city by the author.

Zittel's well-known 'Handbuch der Palaeontologie' is now appearing in English from the Macmillan press (Vol. I., Part 1, 352 pages, 593 woodcuts). Dr. Charles R. Eastman, of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, Cambridge, a former pupil of Professor von Zittel, is the editor and translator. He is assisted by a number of American specialists, as well as by the author himself, who is thoroughly revising the original. The work, which fills five large volumes, is one of the invaluable monuments of German intelligence and industry, and to say that the English translation is worthy of the original text is in itself high praise. It is a labor of love upon the part of the translator, both towards an old teacher and towards this great subject. This revised text will undoubtedly reach a still wider circle of readers than the original German edition, and probably its chief service will be to coördinate, and thus render more effective, researches which are going on independently in widely scattered centres of palæontological and geological study.

'The Earth and Its Story,' a first book of geology, by Angelo Heilprin, Professor of Geology in the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia (Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co.), is an excellent book of its kind—that is, it presents well-selected examples of appropriate facts, generally well illustrated, in pleasant and effective form for school use, and thus is sure to attract and interest the scholar; but the disciplinary element of instruction is not a prominent feature—perhaps intentionally so. A reference to the sections on water-gaps and terraces will illustrate our meaning. A praiseworthy quality of the book, for a beginning in geology, is the strict subordination of historical to dynamical geology, as illustrated in the forms and processes of to-day, namely, in physical geography; but in the thirty-odd pages devoted more or less directly to historical geology, the young student will be left with little idea of the real nature of the geological problems there touched upon. Fact, rather than principle and method of reaching the principle, is here presented to him.

The 'Allgemeine Erdkunde' of Hann, Hochstetter, and Pokorny is now appearing in a fifth much enlarged edition. Part i., by Hann, is just issued (Vienna: Tempsky), and treats of the earth as a whole, its atmosphere and hydrosphere. Part ii., by Brückner, on the earth's crust and its forms, and part iii., by Kirchhoff, on the distribution of animals and plants, are to be issued shortly. The first part is a thorough treatise from a competent hand. Its important chapters are: The earth as "Weltkörper"; terrestrial magnetism, with full discussion of the aurora borealis; the temperature, pressure, winds, rain, etc., of the atmosphere; the oceans, with an elaborate account of temperatures, and a good discussion of currents and tides. We know of no general work that is so complete and generally satisfactory as this; but, from its very fulness of detail, the relation of the parts to the whole is hardly impressed on the student with sufficient emphasis. The discussion of rainfall before the section on cyclones is an inverted order, inherited from a time when the importance of cyclones as a cause of rainfall was not understood; and among the few non-explanatory statements we have noticed is one concerning the diurnal inequality of the tides, from which the reader is not led to perceive an inequality in low as well as high water.

In spite of the reputation enjoyed by H. Habenicht as a cartographer in Perthes's geographical establishment at Gotha, his collection of essays entitled 'Grundriss einer exacten Schöpfungsgeschichte' (Vienna: Hartleben)

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can be recommended only to the collectors of paradoxical literature. It is a fantastically gratuitous series of assumptions concerning the origin of continents, ocean basins, and everything else, by the explosive outbursting of gases contained within the earth, and the collapsing of the great craters of eruption, followed by a whole series of changes to order. The devastating outbursts destroy all life; hence Darwinism is declared to be out of the question. The alternate shrinking and expansion of the oceans, as the continents slide about, control the succession of glacial periods. The plates are nicely prepared, but they are highly imaginative, to say the least.

The thirty-seventh and latest number of the 'Geographische Charakter-Bilder' (Vienna: Hölzel) is an admirable view of the Gorge of the Rhine, looking south past the Lorelei from the upland back of St. Goarshausen. It is a reproduction in colors of a painting by Fischer, showing the broad fields and quiet villages of the uplands, above which the ridge of the Bingenwald rises faintly in the distance and beneath which the deep, steep-sided gorge is sharply incised—the gorge, an international highway, full of life and movement; the uplands, a region of rural byways, unseen by the thousands who pass beneath. A descriptive and explanatory text by Penck adds greatly to the educational value of the view, which, like the rest of the series, is intended "for school and home."

Calendars for 1897 begin to make their appearance, and we have before us (*place aux dames*) "A very seasonable Kalendar . . . designed to bee vsed by y^e^ manie louers of . . . Master William Shakespeare" (Boston: Louella C. Poole & Andrèa Jonsson, 457 Shawmut Ave.). The illustrations are by Maria Danforth Page, and the arabesque title-page is the fancy of Josephine Wright Chapman. This is altogether a very pretty and well-reasoned performance. Each sheet is rubricated, has its illustration—always sufficient and often pleasingly decorative—and is linked to its fellows by a hinge of silk cord. Drollery furnishes the motive of "A California Bear Calendar," illustrated by James Swinnerton and published in San Francisco by the Dodge Book and Stationery Co.; but we fear the Eastern mind will discover as little humor in it as art. "The Pursuit of Happiness Calendar, selected from the writings of Dr. Daniel G. Brinton, by Martha Allston Potts, with drawings by Wm. Sherman Potts" (Philadelphia: Geo. W. Jacobs & Co.) tells its own story. Dr. Brinton's genial face shows through the oval opening of the cover, as if in sympathy with the sentiment set down for January 6: "Sunshine within more than compensates for its absence without." The scheme and the ornamentation of this calendar are well contrived.

The German fashion is something solider and more instructive. "Meyer's Historisch-Geographischer Kalender" (Lemcke & Buechner), for example, is in effect an octavo book of 365 pages, printed on as many leaves. One can read it through with interest before tearing off the daily leaf. One or more historical events associated with the date, the festivals, a proverb or two, a bit of sentiment or of humor, fill out the sheet, which is headed with a picture. The majority of these are views of German cities after Merian's precious series of etchings (1645), with now and again a recent cut after a photograph of the same place, as in the case of Graz, Prag, and Lindau; and one could wish that this comparison had been more extensively carried out. Other pictures are portraits, old and new, or represent notable buildings, or scenery, or curious geologic formations. The scope, both historical and geographical and pictorial, is German in the broad sense. This calendar is, we conclude, too good to be destroyed by peeling from the pad.

We extract two items of interest from the November Bulletin of the Providence Public Library: (1.) Hereafter this publication will include all the accessions to the Providence Athenæum (a subscription library) and to the Brown University Library. (2.) The Boston Public Library maintains a public stenographer and typewriter, who is prepared to make investigations into material in that collection in behalf of persons or institutions at a distance. There is also a photograph-room for the copying of MSS., plates, etc.

The Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund for October contains a report of Dr. Bliss on his recent excavations at Jerusalem. In it he announces the discovery of a flight of thirty-four steps, with alternate wide and narrow treads, in the Tyropœon Valley, of what age it is now impossible to decide. A street was also uncovered in this same valley, with paving-stones of great size laid on a concrete bed made of chips and lime. These excavations, it should be added, are prosecuted with great difficulty, on account of the depth of the rubbish, which at places exceeds one hundred feet. It is very remarkable that no architectural or archæological remains of importance dating from Jewish times have yet been found. The veteran explorer Herr von Schick contributes an elaborate account, with ground plans, of the Church of the Ascension and the neighboring buildings.

The figure of Heinrich von Treitschke, as drawn by Paul Bailleu in the pages of the *Rundschau* for October and November, is impressive in its unstudied dramatic effect. Treitschke's ideas took early in life a turn sharply at variance with the traditions of his family and his native Saxony. Like Lessing, he was German to the core, and particularism and patriotism were to both of them mutually exclusive ideas. Germany's unity and greatness, through the influence and power of Prussia, was the single aim to which Treitschke devoted his life-work, whether as publicist or academical teacher, as historian, statesman, or representative in the Reichstag. An attack of the measles in his childhood left him partially deaf. His father was an officer of high rank in the Saxon army, and his brother fought against Prussia at Königgrätz; but neither physical infirmity nor the deeper affliction caused by strained family relations could make him swerve from his course. His character, his stalwartness and sincerity, also remind us of Lessing; but he had not, like the latter, a dislike for professorial chairs, and, great though the effect of his many publications has been, his influence upon the academic youth at Leipzig, Freiburg, Kiel, Heidelberg, and Berlin was ever felt by him as a powerful stimulus to patriotic activity. Between thirty and forty letters of Treitschke to Gustav Freytag, to Bismarck, and others are also published in this connection. Several of them are of historical interest, and recall vividly the political events of the periods to which they belong.

Volume i., No. 8 of the *Far East* (the monthly English edition of the Japanese *Kokumin-no-tomo*, or The Nation's Friend) contains articles on the downfall of the Ito cabinet, with pictures of the new Minister-President of State, Count Matsukata, and of Okuma, Minister of Foreign Affairs. Japan is now reaping the evil aftermath of a successful war, in the shape of deficits in revenue, increased taxation to support the swollen military and naval establishments, and the payment in gold for foreign war material. She finds a sea of troubles, too, in the form of a depressed silk market and enormous losses of life and property from destructive natural elements. Very few critics of either party expect the new cabinet to continue very long, or to be able to face with full success the new and complex problems entailed by the war. In "A Word to Americans," Mr. Shimada Saburo, scholar, historian, and vice-president of the lower house of the Diet, protests against those obstacles to trade between Japan and the United States which an American high tariff will set up. He turns upon us the text which Perry and Harris preached so loudly with warships and diplomacy forty years ago, "To maintain communication between the races is the will of God." Dr. W. F. Eastlake, resident in Japan for more than fifteen years, who has just finished his 'Heroic Japan,' a history of the Chino-Japanese war of 1894–'5, in an acute paper on the Europeanization of Japan, declares that "European nations will never admit as their equal a land in which Buddhism is the national or favorite creed." With news and notes there is a detailed account of the chanoyu (hot-water tea) ceremony.

—To the expert eye the London *Academy* had for a long time been showing signs of financial pinch and loosening hold on existence when it was bruited that a change of management was impending. This change took place with the issue for November 14 (No. 1280). Mr. Lewis Hind succeeds Mr. James S. Cotton as editor, being the fourth in descent from the founder, Dr. Charles Edward Appleton. What most marks the new broom is not the improved paper and typography, nor the rearrangement of parts, nor the "portrait supplement," but the explicit abandonment of the signed review. The open proclamation of the critic was the chief excuse for a rival to the *Athenæum* in the year 1869, so far as the reading public was concerned. At the same time, the creation of the *Academy* was a satisfaction to those who smarted under the elder journal's anonymous criticism, or regarded the *Athenæum* as dominated by a clique, or for other reasons found themselves out with it and its editorial control; and of course the more critical reviews, the more chances for budding reviewers. Experience has fully justified those who held to the conservative ground which has made English criticism of books the best in the world. At no period did the *Academy* reach the level of the *Athenæum*, or deliver its message with the same independence and directness and with equal weight. This is not, of course, to deny its scholarly direction and support, and its essential utility as an organ of learning. The change will dishearten those who, in this country, occasionally lift up their voices against anonymity, in the face of some very striking examples of literary reputations lowered by signed criticism. It ought not to be overlooked that a large body of minor criticism, none the less conclusive or possibly offensive for being brief—much of it in the nature of hack-work, and therefore superficial and careless—regularly went unsigned in the *Academy*.

—Two books just published by John Wiley & Sons, 'American Theatres,' by William H. Birkmire, and 'Theatre Fires and Panics,' by

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William Paul Gerhard, C.E., contain much information concerning modern play-houses and their construction, most of which, however, is too technical to be of interest to the general reader. The former is devoted chiefly to detailed descriptions, with abundant photographic illustrations, of the many fine theatres erected during the last few years in New York, Boston, and Chicago. All of them are highly decorated, more or less commodious, and nominally, if not actually, fireproof. The latter discusses fires and panics and the various precautions which ought to be taken against them. It appears that, since 1751, nearly 750 theatres have been burned in different parts of the world (there is some little discrepancy in the figures quoted from different authorities), with a loss of nearly 7,000 lives. This proves the importance of the subject. Mr. Gerhard, evidently, has studied it carefully, and his conclusions, so far as they go, are perfectly sound. All that he says about the necessity of fireproof materials in building, abundant and easy modes of exit, open spaces around the theatre, a copious water supply, frequent inspection, disciplined attendants, etc., is indisputably true, but in no sense original or novel. The list which he furnishes of patent appliances of all kinds for the prompt extinction of flames once started seems to be very complete, and many of them, no doubt, are essential, but the vital question is not how to put a fire out, but how to prevent the possibility of its occurrence. On this point he is not so clear and definite as he might be. As a matter of fact, there is no excuse for having the present amount of combustible material in a theatre, or, practically, any combustible material at all. Everything on or about the stage, including scenery, ropes, draperies, even the lightest costumes of the players, can be made absolutely fire-proof. Moreover, with separate structures for lighting and heating apparatus, it is not necessary to have flame of any sort within the building. So much assurance of precaution would do away with the chief provoking cause of a theatrical panic, more dangerous to life than fire itself.

—Volume iv. of the Grimm Library (London: David Nutt), entitled 'The Voyage of Bran, edited with translation, by Kuno Meyer, with an Essay upon the Irish Vision of the Happy Otherworld, etc.,' by Alfred Nutt, is a valuable gift both to the philologist and to the folklorist. The Voyage of Bran has been much discussed of late, notably by Zimmer. The significance of the text for Irish grammar may best be learned from Meyer's words, p. xvi: "The Voyage of Bran was originally written down in the *seventh century*. From this original, some time in the tenth century, a copy was made, in which the language of the *poetry*, protected by the laws of metre and assonance, was *left almost intact*, while the prose was subjected to a process of partial modernization, which most affected the verbal forms. From this tenth-century copy all our MSS. are derived." We have italicized the significant words. They imply that pratically we have a poetical text in Irish as that language existed in the seventh century. The quatrains in the Voyage of Bran, then, take rank with, if they do not antedate, our earliest literature in Anglo-Saxon and German, and are contemporary with the celebrated Würzburg Gloss to the Pauline Epistles (see Zimmer, 'Glossæ Hibernicæ,' and Whitley Stokes, 'The Old-Irish Glosses'). These quatrains (60 in number, or 240 lines in the present edition), accordingly, may be used to complement the phonology and lexicography of the Würzburg gloss. Of Professor Meyer's part as editor and commentator we can speak only in terms of the highest praise; evidently he has spared no pains to make his work both lucid and exhaustive. The same praise should be extended to Mr. Nutt's disquisitions upon the general conceptions underlying the Irish story. Though still incomplete (the present volume contains only Part I.), the Essay proves the author to be a master of his complicated theme. He indicates the relations and interdependence of Irish, Classical, Jewisb, and Early Christian conceptions of an Other-World and a Happy Land. As a specimen we may refer to chapter x., which treats of the Phœnix story, familiar to students of Anglo-Saxon, of the Apocryphal Apocalypses (especially of Peter), the Visio Pauli, the Second Sibylline Oracle, etc. Under Mr. Nutt's cautious guidance one cannot help becoming initiated in the marvellous complexity of mediæval literature.

—From the Clarendon Press we have the first part of a 'Compendious Syriac Dictionary,' by J. Payne Smith, a daughter of the late R. Payne Smith, D.D. The work is substantially an abridgment of her father's 'Thesaurus Syriacus.' Proper names and a multitude of the foreign words with which Syriac writers embellished their style are omitted, as well as all references to authors and native lexicons. The arrangement is alphabetical instead of etymological, even *Afel's* of verbs with a weak initial consonant being entered under A, with a reference to the verbs from which they are formed. Derivative and cognate words are registered under the roots to which they belong. In various ways considerable space is given to matters for which it would have been better simply to refer to a grammar, as, for example, in the article on the letter Âlaf. So it is surely superfluous to give—as is done throughout—the plural of nouns and the feminine of adjectives which are entirely regular; those who use such a dictionary must be presumed to have at least learned their paradigms. On the other hand, the distinction between the explosive and spirant sounds of the mutes in words like *abhâ*, 'father,' *ebâ* or *ebbâ*, 'fruit,' which can be learned only from the dictionary, is neglected. The definitions, in English, are concise and clear. The author has generally followed the 'Thesaurus' closely, even where criticism or subsequent research has proved it wrong; the name of the month Adar, for example, is still said to be derived from the Persian, though it is now certainly known to be of Babylonian origin. In some cases the work of abridgment seems to have been rather hastily done. Thus, the 'Thesaurus' tells us that *aubâurâun* (the pronunciation is dubious) is interpreted by some 'wild chicory,' by others 'dandelion'; the 'Dictionary' sets these down, under *a* and *b*, as the two meanings of the word. Löw's discussion of the word is not noticed, and the true form of the name is entirely omitted. In the rare instances in which the author departs in any way from the larger work she has not always improved upon it. The reintroduction (from Castell) of "a mason's trowel" as one of the meanings of *abhâthâ* is certainly a mistake. In general, however, the work seems to have been well done, and the Dictionary will doubtless be warmly welcomed by English and American students. When completed it will, as we estimate, fill not far from 600 pages in quarto, and thus be considerably longer than the recent Lexicon of Brockelmann. The typography is fully up to the standard of the Clarendon Press; higher praise cannot be given.

—With the exception of our cities, local government in the United States has not of late years been the subject of many experiments, though time has brought about some changes in administrative detail. More than ordinary importance, therefore, attaches to the proposed remodelling of its form of government which the town of Melrose, Mass., had for some months under consideration, even cast into definite form for submission to the Legislature, and then, unfortunately for the curious, rejected. The plan provides for a representative body of fifty members, to be known as the Town Council, and exercising the powers vested by law in the town as a municipal corporation, but heretofore exercised by the town meeting. The duties now performed by the selectmen, water, sewer, and road commissioners, surveyors of highways, and overseers of the poor are to devolve upon an executive board of nine members, to be known as the Board of Public Works. For election purposes the town is to be divided into five precincts, each of which is to elect eight members of the Town Council, the remaining ten to be chosen at large. The members of the Board of Public Works will regularly be elected for three years, three retiring annually. The Board will have the appointment and removal of a number of town officials, but the town will continue to elect annually its Clerk, Assessors, School Committee, Treasurer, Auditor, and Board of Health. The Board is to meet as often as occasion requires; the Town Council is to meet in January, March, and October of each year, and at other times on the request of ten or more legal voters, or as they themselves may deem necessary. It will be seen that by this plan the Town Council will be legislative in its character, with control, apparently, of taxation and finance, while the Board of Public Works is intended to be purely executive. The town meeting disappears. The outcome of such an experiment would be awaited with widespread interest.

—Since the meeting of the International Woman's Congress at Berlin, in September last, the tone of the German public press has undergone a complete change as far as discussions of questions pertaining to the woman movement are concerned. While these were formerly quite generally characterized by flippancy or lack of sympathy, they are now marked by a serious and friendly spirit. If the recent event itself attracted the attention of thoughtful men and women in the country, the calmness and dignity with which all the meetings of the congress were conducted seem to have won universal respect for its members. Even the exchange of views between the *Socialdemokratinnen* and the more conservative majority of the participants in the congress did not lead to intemperance of language or exhibitions of violent antagonism—a circumstance with which foreign delegates have been favorably impressed. English and French delegates have expressed their surprise at the remarkable self-control and matter-of-fact ways of the German women. The latter, in their turn, are deriving from occurrences at the congress encouragement for the future reconciliation of the classes through the mediation of woman. One of their special objects of agitation just now is the revision, by the new Reichstag two years hence, of certain sec-

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tions of the new civil code of the Empire which will not take effect till the year 1900.

LANG'S LOCKHART.

The Life and Letters of John Gibson Lockhart. By Andrew Lang. From Abbotsford and Milton Lockhart MSS. and other original sources. With fifteen illustrations. 2 vols. London: John C. Nimmo; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

THESE two showy and costly volumes deserve a wider circulation than it is to be feared their size and price will allow. It was eminently right that the Life of Lockhart should be written; and perhaps, all things considered, Mr. Andrew Lang was the best person to write it. He is a Scotchman; he is a man of fine taste and a practised writer; and he honestly and heartily admires Sir Walter in these days which affect to call Scott's poems "verse" and his novels antiquated. Perhaps no one else could have been found combining these three necessary qualifications; and certainly his book is one not laid down in a hurry after it is once taken up. Yet there is, all through, an effort in reading it which is never experienced by those who love its subject. Mr. Lang's constant writing in modern periodicals has given him something of their smart, jerky style, not wholly out of tune, perhaps, with Lockhart's own earlier production, but one which he would have assuredly made to feel his correcting pen if offered to the *Quarterly*.

John Gibson Lockhart, whose life extended from 1794 to 1854, was a man of exceptional attractiveness in person, talents, and character. His means were small enough to stimulate him to hard work; his education at Oxford and his social position in Scotland were perfectly adapted to introduce him to the circles where his talents could be turned to the best account. Yet, as we read his life, we get the impression of ill-success, and there is an air of sadness over it which does not surround others of his contemporaries—Southey, for instance—who worked harder and scarcely achieved more. Two causes contributed to make Lockhart get less out of life than he might have hoped. First was his intense love of satire, even to the extent in his youth of making mischief; his keen, trained mind detected the follies and weaknesses of his contemporaries instantly, and when the ludicrous vision once arose, an almost irresistible propensity led him to make them the subject of provoking, too often of absolutely insulting, fun. He carried this so far in his early literary life that when, by the advice of Scott, and probably by his own advice to himself, he was ready to drop it, and did do so, the reputation of a merciless satirist was gained and was not to be shaken off. The place where this evil temper found vent was in *Blackwood's Magazine*, where, in conjunction with John Wilson, who really behaved sometimes more like a malicious schoolboy than a grown man, and deserved the like punishment, he filled number after number with jests on all and sundry which no possible coolness or good nature could laugh at or forgive. Mr. Lang endeavors to throw off the blame of this wanton abuse on Blackwood the editor, whom he makes out to have been as fond of a "slashing article" as the immortal Bungay. But it does not appear that Lockhart or Wilson ever objected to write the "slashing articles," and, considering that they really were "Maga," the idea that she was a kind of siren who seduced them into reckless bad manners is fanciful.

In all his account of Lockhart's connection with *Blackwood*, with the *Quarterly*, and with John Wilson Croker, Mr. Lang admits that he had not full access to original documents and was obliged in many parts of his subject to feel his way. Certain it is that he writes rather as defending Lockhart against charges which everybody knows than as telling the story which every one does not know, and letting us form our own opinion. In discussing the terrible duel between Christie and John Scott, which is of itself enough to stamp the whole breed of duels as wicked and absurd, he is determined to clear Lockhart from any imputation against his honor. Technically, according to the wretched code of the duello, he succeeds, by the simple process of throwing much of the blame on Horace Smith, who was Scott's second—and certainly no duellist ever had worse seconds than poor Scott; but the fact remains that if Lockhart had not sought to maintain his honor by the formal absurdity of "posting" Scott, there need never have been any duel at all. The idea, however, that mischief, and quarrels, and duels, and deaths might come of his fighting temper does not seem to have troubled Lockhart much.

The second obstacle to Lockhart's success, which superficial people might fancy was a blessing, was his being Sir Walter's son-in-law. It overshadowed him, it hampered him, and one might almost say it crushed him. It enabled him to write one of the most delightful books ever written; but the position he was in during Scott's life, and the cares in which this relation involved him after his death, were altogether too much for his shy, sensitive, sad nature. Contact with the cheery, robust, insouciant character of Sir Walter seemed the very thing to correct his faults, especially when we consider how tenderly and delicately the task was taken in hand; but the constant comparison of two such characters by the world inevitably drove the younger and secondary soul in upon itself and aggravated its melancholy. The world criticised him for not being like his great connection, as it would have criticised him still worse for trying to imitate him.

The whole story of this alliance, this marriage with a child of the immortals which was almost as fatal as those of Tithonus and Anchises, is most of it very well told by Mr. Lang, who has had unreserved access to the Abbotsford papers; but there is one serious exception. Scott's Life, as written by Lockhart, gave great offence to the representatives of the Ballantynes, his printer and publisher. A war of pamphlets took place, in which the Ballantynes had the last word, and in which Lockhart's contribution, whether correct or not in facts, is certainly, as Mr. Lang has to admit, sufficiently flippant in tone. In fact, Lockhart appears so one-sided in the correspondence that his biographer is obliged to speak of him as holding a brief, and to throw all blame for misrepresentation of facts, if blame there be, upon Cadell, the last of Scott's publishers. But any one who has read all three pamphlets—not, perhaps, easy to collect now—and Mr. Lang's apology, will be almost forced into the belief that Sir Walter, in following the will-of-the-wisp of a baronial estate, with its castle, not only ruined himself, but ruined the printing-house which, without his insane purchases and constructions, might have given both him and his printers a noble income; and that the failure was by his fault and not that of the Ballantynes. In this, as in so many cases, the old tale recurs: Lockhart may be acquitted of sober malignity, but he could hardly tell even an honest story without resorting to reckless satire against any antagonist, high or low; and such hornet's stings hurt worse than deadlier poison.

In fact, as has been already noticed by some English reviewers, Mr. Lang injures his hero by the very ardor of his defence. He is so anxious to defend Lockhart against charges of being a fiend that he hardly recognizes how much suffering Lockhart caused by a boyish love of mischief. He has brought out, with loving care, the genius, the industry, the truly tender heart, and the sorrow which seemed almost to pursue Lockhart like an avenging deity; and for this labor of love he deserves warm thanks. He deserves, perhaps, even greater thanks for adding another brilliant and polished gem to the cairn of Lockhart's illustrious friend and connection, whose fame is beginning again to assert itself against a series of attacks as deficient in artistic sense as they are in generous emotion, and which in due time will all be consigned to the same limbo with Jeffrey's original review of 'Marmion'—worth studying only to see to what absurdities a critic can come who writes from a valley and not from a hill.

PINE FORESTRY.

The Timber Pines of the Southern States. By Charles Mohr, Ph.D. Together with a Discussion of the Structure of their Wood, by Fillibert Roth. Washington: Government Printing-Office. 1896.

The White Pine. With Tables of Volume and Yield. By Gifford Pinchot and H. S. Graves. The Century Company. 1896.

FEW subjects are considered of greater practical importance by thoughtful people than the proper treatment of forests; there are few subjects more neglected. In a half-hearted way we delegate to State and national commissions on forestry such powers as we think will not conflict with the prejudices of our voting lumbermen; we encourage frantic newspaper appeals to the wood-pulp manufacturer and to the owners of the lumber railroads; and then, having done our duty, we calmly suffer the work of forest destruction to proceed. We treat the whole matter as if it were some sort of charity, readily transferable to a set of officers, instead of needing constant and earnest consideration at home and at our own doors. In truth, the whole matter presents a very discouraging side. For instance, if a practical lumberman in New Hampshire should be told that leaving the rubbishy tops and large branches of his trees in the woods where his logs are cut increases immensely the terrible risk of his greatest peril, fire, he would tell you truly that he admits what you say, but that he cannot apply foreign rules to his operations. In Europe, the poor would gather gladly the smallest of the twigs for faggots, but here nobody in his senses would take as a gift even the large branches for fuel. The lumberman would rightly say that whoever wants the waste for fuel or for wood-pulp is welcome to it, but that he himself will not use up his narrow margin of profit by removing the hazardous tangle of fallen limbs. Moreover, he will be very likely to add, also, some expression of his views as to making clean work of trees, large and small, instead of cutting only the larger and leaving the smaller to grow and be cut in their turn. He may go even so far as to show that he dares not incur the risk of keeping the smaller trees standing in the midst of his rubbish, for he may lose them by

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fire. And when you come to the question of replanting as you go along, as is the custom in some of the forest operations abroad, he shows its impracticability or absurdity under conditions which prevail in our Northeast. Admitting everything you claim, confessing that he is pursuing a destructive policy, he goes right ahead, and leaves behind him a mass of timber and scrub through which, from lightning or huntsman's match, wildfire will run, and this in turn will leave the hillsides to be robbed of soil at all seasons of the year.

Perhaps the lumberman is right; perhaps he cannot afford to aid in protecting his own property and that of his neighbors down in the valleys. If so, the question of keeping our mountains and hill tops covered with forest will have to be taken in hand, not by sagacious lumbermen skilled in forestry, and treating the woodland as a permanent investment, but by the manufacturers on the rivers which come from the strength of the hills. In these days of steam the perils from scanty supply of water are by no means so great as the dangers from sudden freshets. These twin but unequal dangers are now assuming their proper magnitude in the reports of directors of manufacturing companies. All recognize the importance of the matter, and all feel helpless. It is generally recognized that, in order to effect adequate protection, large districts must be held under single management. Hence follows the conclusion that the State should promptly do something, even if it be rather arbitrary and in invasion of private rights. In other parts of the country there is likewise a feeling that our imperilled forests must somehow or other be taken in hand by Government and held for the good of all. Our Government has taken the consideration, but not the forests, in hand.

The Division of Forestry in the Department of Agriculture (like its predecessors under other names) has been for many years engaged in the collection and diffusion of information regarding sound methods of procedure in forest operations, but it has not felt called upon to propose extreme measures. It has rather endeavored to apply established principles of European forestry to our conditions, and in this it has not always commanded a respectful hearing. When, however, it has attempted to describe exhaustively our forests or their constituent parts, it has generally succeeded in a happy manner. This is well illustrated by the admirable monographs by Dr. Mohr and Mr. Roth, published under the auspices of the Division. To Dr. Mohr was intrusted the task of describing the four principal pines of the Southern States, which have economic interest, namely, *Pinus palustris*, Long-leaf Pine, *Pinus echinata*, Short-leaf Pine, *Pinus Tæda*, Loblolly Pine, and *Pinus heterophylla*, Cuban Pine. The first two are generally known as Southern or Yellow Pine, the two latter are frequently called Slash Pine. The botanical characters of the species, their rate of growth, and their products are dealt with in a systematic and thorough manner. The structure of the wood has been well worked out, and the results are embodied in the same report. The whole treatise is designed to "enable the owners of the Southern pineries, who are now engaged in exploiting them, so to modify their treatment of the same as to insure continued reproduction instead of complete exhaustion, which is threatened under present methods." It is a scientific and honest attempt to present sound advice on the subject.

If, now, we try to place ourselves in the position of the small owners of timber lots within the limits mentioned in the monographs, we should simply despair of accomplishing anything in a practical way. It would be out of the question to manage our little wood-lots after the methods here suggested; and we should give up discouraged, and with bitter feelings towards the unpractical doctrinaires who had tried to make us work after their theoretical fashion. But, on the other hand, suppose we were in charge of a territory belonging to a syndicate willing to make fair trial of promising methods, we should unhesitatingly welcome the present monographs as of high value in our practical work. And this is just what the chief of the Division of Foresty has here aimed at. He says:

"The owners of timber land and the operators of mills are the only people who can improve these conditions, and this by a more rational treatment of their property. If they can be made to realize now that what they own and hold as a temporary speculation will, in a short time, when supplies have visibly decreased, become a first-class investment, and, by its revenues, become a greater source of wealth under competent management with a view to reproduction than that which they have derived from it by the mere robbing of the old timber, they might take steps at least against the unnecessary damage done to it by fire and cattle. Permanency and continuity of ownership appear to be the first condition to insure such results, and therefore corporations which are not of an ephemeral character and men of large wealth are most desirable forest owners."

It appears as if, under existing conditions, the best way to secure the advantages of forestry, both North and South, is to secure the formation of corporations made up of people interested in the development of forest culture and willing to take small profits on their investments. Such corporations can find intelligent superintendents trained in practical forestry, under whose judicious management forestry, especially at the South, would become safe and reasonably profitable.

Where the question is one of protection against freshets, and not a matter of profit from lumber, it would be perhaps possible for our larger manufacturing establishments on our Eastern rivers to secure large tracts of timber on our more exposed elevated lands, which could be managed solely with the design of preserving the integrity of the watershed. All such problems of tree preservation at the North and East could be safely left to our foresters. But we should not look with confidence to them for any profitable logging. All profits would be solely the indirect ones arising from governing water-supply and water-release. In the South, however, as we have intimated, the case is different. Here we should expect safe albeit small profits in the direct way. The monographs by Dr. Mohr are a valuable contribution looking towards this end.

As indicating the drift of scientific forestry, we commend to the attention of our readers the little book by Mr. Pinchot and Dr. Graves, on the White Pine. It shows how the study of trees differs nowadays from the study of even a quarter of a century ago, and gives substantial ground for the belief that better times are in store. With Prof. Sargent's 'Silva' and its remarkable illustrations by Mr. Faxon, those who are interested in our forest trees possess all requisite appliances for the recognition and comparison of the species. The excellent works referred to in this notice prove that the study of the species from a botanical point of view can be satisfactorily supplemented in all their economic aspects. Hence it is an auspicious time to convert some of the neglect which we deplore into active enterprise in conservative forestry. In our opinion Prof. Fernow of the Division at Washington deserves a great deal of credit for his services in enlisting in the cause of sound forestry the many who are now coöperating with him throughout the country.

Chapters from a Life. By Elizabeth Stuart Phelps. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

MRS. WARD begins the story of her life in the high-pitched voice with which all those who have read her much are too painfully familiar, and this note recurs at times throughout the book, especially in the didactic, or rather hortatory, parts. The narrative parts are written more quietly, yet with an excess of animal spirits, and a proneness to that kind of humor which consists in using sesquipedalian words to express simple ideas. Even where no humor is intended, we have such laborious clumsiness of phrase as suggests the local editorial rather than good literature. For example, speaking of Emerson's behavior among the Andover theologians, she says:

"His clear-cut, sarcastic lips sought to assume the well-bred curves of conformity to the environment of entertainers who valued him so highly as to demand a series of his own lectures; but the cynic [cynicism?] of his temperamental revolt from us, or, to be exact, from the thing which he supposed us to be, lurked in every line of his memorable face."

Few of those who knew Emerson much better than Mrs. Ward ever knew him will recognize him in her school-girl picture, which evidently has been a good deal "restored" by her maturer hand.

As Benedick, when he said he would die single, did not think he should live till he was married, so Mrs. Ward, when she fancied that autobiography was of all things most objectionable to her, little imagined that she would live to write her own. She gives no reasons for so radical a change of mind. She is very modest in crediting all her literary ability to her ancestors, but apparently less just. If heredity counts for anything, one would certainly expect ability from the granddaughter of Moses Stuart, but not of Mrs. Ward's particular kind. The face of Moses Stuart contrasts violently with that of her paternal grandfather, whose great distinction was long acquaintance with a haunted house. Mrs. Ward has in her possession his MS. record of this experience, but has solemnly bound herself to defraud the societies for psychical research of their right and title to examine it. Of her father she says little, having dealt with him elsewhere. Her mother had a distinct literary gift, and her 'Sunnyside,' a picture of a New England minister's domestic life, reached a circulation of 100,000 copies before her early death. If we remember rightly, it was written very quietly, but she had a passion for high colors in dress goods, and this seems to have passed over into the daughter's style of writing, which has many passages corresponding to the red broadcloth and the canary yellow in which the mother arrayed her little boy and girl.

"Andover Life and People" is the most delightful chapter in the book. There are airs from Cranford blowing through it—these more in the provincial traits suggested than in the author's habitually restless manner of depicting the amenities and humors of the

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frugal academic town. As a mere girl Miss Phelps got $2.50 for a story, but her literary ambition seemed to catch with its success surcease. The war came home to the Andover Academy and Theological School very seriously, and from its emotional quickening came Miss Phelps's real start on her literary career, a war story for *Harper's Magazine*. She is quite confident that, had this story been rejected, or the next, or the next, she would have written no more; but we permit ourselves to entertain a doubt of this. She has good advice for young writers, telling them how little "influence" can do for them; that the editors and publishers are much more anxious to get really good things than the young authors are to sell their wares. But they do not always know a good thing when they see it. The catalogue is long of admirable things which have been rejected by distinguished editors and publishers. A big story is told of her substantially rewriting a child's book of 350 pp. that came back to her, between suppertime and the next morning, but in general Mrs. Ward professes to have been a very careful writer, surprising us with the fact that her 'Gates Ajar,' which yields such an impression of spontaneity, was some years in the making, and hung fire in the publisher's office for two more. This book was her great success, so far as wide popular admiration is concerned. It was a strong emotional cry for immortality, contending that the cry was the sufficient evidence of the thing so much desired. It was much translated, much answered, much supplemented, travestied, economized. There were "Gates Ajar" tippets, collars, funeral-pieces, songs, cigars, and patent medicines. A Westerner in Boston inquired furtively of a bartender if there was a new drink called "Gates Ajar." One must remember the average quality of the preaching of a future life in the early sixties in order to appreciate the appeal which the book made to persons of emotional temperament and hungry heart.

Mrs. Ward's reminiscences of Mrs. Stowe, James T. Fields, Celia Thaxter, Whittier, Lucy Larcom, Phillips Brooks, and others are not elaborate, but they are interesting contributions to a fund which cannot be too large. "Andover was a heavy, masculine place," and for this reason Mrs. Stowe was regarded with suspicion, rumors of certain Episcopalian leanings coöperating with her undeniable sex. 'The Minister's Wooing' was written there, the outcome of a bitter personal experience. There are pleasing stories of Mr. Fields's kindness to unfortunate authors and lecture agents. One of Miss Phelps's best titles, 'Men, Women, and Ghosts,' was of his devising. Longfellow she had the honor of introducing in his old age to the reef of Norman's Woe on which he had wrecked the *Hesperus* in his youth. We find Whittier half repenting his scorching "Ichabod," but his impulses were always wiser than his calculations. One of the best stories brackets him and Lucy Larcom in the happiest manner. They were driving together, the hill was steep, the horse lively and threatening to break. Miss Larcom's subject was presumably the life to come. "Lucy," cried the poet, "if thee doesn't stop talking till I get this horse in hand, thee will be in heaven before thee wants to."

A chapter on Mrs. Ward's life at Gloucester is braided of many colors, light and dark; the darkest the misery entailed by the drinking habit on the fishermen and their families, out of which came her terrible story of 'Jack the Fisherman,' and more recently 'A Singular Life,' which has so deeply stirred a multitude of the most earnest people. Another cloud upon the Gloucester life was sickness with insomnia, and Mrs. Ward is passionate in her advice against the use of anodynes to conjure sleep. Upon the other side of the account was her happy marriage with Mr. Ward. Something of the personal equation lurks in her estimate of the books they wrote together, 'The Master of the Magicians' and 'Come Forth.' Of her short stories she tells us that her favorites are 'The Madonna of the Tubs,' 'Jack the Fisherman,' 'The Supply at Saint Agatha's,' and 'The Bell of Saint Basil's.' She argues earnestly for "art for truth's sake" as a wiser motto than "art for art's sake." "In a word," she says, "the province of the artist is to portray life as it is; and life *is* moral reponsibility." If her own art has suffered from her moral insistence, the fault is one than which there is no greener leaf among the laurels she has fairly won.

Lectures on Justice, Police, Revenue, and Arms delivered in the University of Glasgow by Adam Smith, reported by a student in 1763, and edited, with introduction and notes, by Edwin Cannan. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1896. xxxix, 293 pp.

A MOOT question in the history of economic thought has long been the degree of originality possessed by its great classic, Adam Smith's 'Wealth of Nations.' Opinion has varied from Dupont de Nemours's dictum, "Everything that is true in this respectable but tedious work in two fat quarto volumes is to be found in Turgot's 'Reflections on the Formation and Distribution of Riches'; everything added by Adam Smith is inaccurate, not to say incorrect"—to McCulloch's familiar estimate, "The 'Wealth of Nations' was the first work in which the science was treated to its fullest extent," and "gives Adam Smith an undoubted claim to be regarded as the founder of the modern system of political economy." French writers have in general inclined to the first opinion; English economists have as naturally pinned their faith to the second.

The facts of the case are these: Adam Smith occupied the chair of Moral Philosophy in the University of Glasgow from 1752 to 1764. In this capacity he delivered regular courses of lectures on jurisprudence and politics, some part of which had indeed been given at Edinburgh as early as 1750. The concluding paragraph of 'The Theory of Moral Sentiments,' published in 1759, explicitly promised a comprehensive treatise by the same author upon the general principles of law and government. Smith resigned his professorship in 1764 to accept a travelling tutorship to the young Duke of Buccleugh, and began the actual composition of the 'Wealth of Nations' in the same year. The greater part of 1766 was spent in Paris, in intimate association with the brilliant coterie of French economists of which Quesnay was the recognized leader, and of which Turgot, Dupont de Nemours, Mercier de la Rivière and Mirabeau were distinguished disciples. Smith returned to England in the latter part of 1766, and remained in retirement, steadily engaged upon the 'Wealth of Nations,' until its publication in March, 1776.

The issue is then clear. Is the 'Wealth of Nations' in the main an independent development of Smith's earlier thought as represented in the Glasgow lectures, or does it merely reflect in its essential doctrines the general influence of the physiocratic writers? The method of verification which naturally suggests itself—comparison of the treatise with the lecture-notes—is made impossible by Smith's zealous care to destroy all his manuscripts before his death. In lieu thereof, biographers and critics have had to content themselves with John Millar's brief outline of the lectures, obtained and inserted by Dugald Stewart in his memoir of Adam Smith, and containing the explicit statement that "what he [*i. e.*, Smith] delivered on these subjects contained the substance of the work he afterwards published under the title of 'An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations.'" This testimony of a person who actually heard the lectures has been supplemented by Mr. John Rae, in his recent admirable 'Life of Adam Smith,' with certain other details pointing in the same direction. Yet, as Mr. Cannan remarks, myths of this kind die hard, and under ordinary circumstances we must have been prepared for periodic repetition of Dupont de Nemours's assertion of a large physiocratic indebtedness.

The matter has now been definitively settled by a remarkable literary find. This consists in the accidental discovery of Adam Smith's Glasgow lectures on "Justice, Police, Revenue, and Arms," as reported by a student in 1763. Mr. Edwin Cannan, well known by his acute study of the doctrines of the English classical economists, has edited the MS. for the Clarendon Press, with a concise account of the history and value of the Report, a striking table of parallel passages in the Lectures and in the 'Wealth of Nations,' and with scholarly explanatory and historical notes.

The Report, while lacking, of course, the absolute certainty of Adam Smith's original lecture-notes, bears such incontestable evidence of authenticity and accuracy as to satisfy every ordinary doubt with respect to the questions heretofore in debate. Three categoric statements are warranted by an examination of the Report, and to these the economic world will doubtless give prompt assent: (1.) Adam Smith's Glasgow lectures contained not only the general principles but also the detailed expositions of the 'Wealth of Nations,' so that those whom Mr. Cannan calls "enthusiasts of plagiarism" must henceforth endeavor to convict Turgot instead of Smith of unacknowledged indebtedness. (2.) The idea of the necessity of a theory of distribution in an economic treatise was derived by Adam Smith from the French economists; but, instead of adopting the intricate physiocratic theory, Smith simply "tacked his own scheme (very different from theirs) on to his already existing theory of prices." (3.) Smith's projected work on jurisprudence, often referred to but never completed, dealt with the subjects included in Part I. ("Of Justice"), and possibly in Part V. ("Of the Law of Nations") of the Report, and constituted the third part of the lecture course on moral philosophy, as described by Millar; Parts II., III., and IV. ("Of Police, Revenue, and Arms") of the Report contain a well-rounded draft of the 'Wealth of Nations,' and correspond to the fourth part of Millar's outline.

This fortunately recovered memorial of Adam Smith's academic activity is thus not only of unique literary interest, but of vital importance to the historian of economic thought. It is here reproduced in worthy garb, and under editorial supervision that leaves nothing to be desired.

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Modern Political Orations. Edited by Leopold Wagner. Henry Holt & Co. 1896. Pp. xv, 344.

THIS volume is, in the preface, declared to be a "modest attempt to collect some of the most notable examples of the political oratory of the present reign [of Victoria]." We are given twenty-four speeches by as many orators. The book is interesting and instructive, but in a certain sense wanting in balance. Some of the best speakers of the period named are omitted—we have neither Sir Robert Peel nor Lord Palmerston, Lord Stanley ("the Rupert of debate") nor Dr. Magee. A desire to forward the cause of home rule is perhaps the motive of the work. Not only are seven of the speeches more or less concerned with that subject, but we have an appendix dealing with the *Times* on "Parnellism and Crime" and with the Pigott forgeries.

It is interesting to remark that most of the subjects treated of in the speeches have dropped out of sight or been finally laid at rest. The Don Pacifico case no longer troubles us. Fears regarding negro emancipation, the admission of Jews to Parliament, the extension of the franchise, the Disestablishment of the Irish Church, the adoption of the ballot, no longer disturb British statesmen. The Irish question remains unsettled. Much of O'Connell's speech at Tara, delivered fifty-three years ago, might have been taken *en bloc* from an Irish newspaper of the present day. We are struck by the absence in the speeches before us of wide generalization and of lofty, all-embracing thought. They are essentially businesslike and to the point, but wanting in fire. Bright and Bradlaugh perhaps reach the highest levels in this respect. We find much to illustrate doctrines concerning the vanity of human wishes, much to cause the cynic to smile—O'Connell in 1843 all but promising Repeal within a year, Lord Ellenborough in 1863 encouraging the Poles to persevere in insurrection, Joseph Cowen posing as a "life-long radical," Mr. Chamberlain still, so lately as 1885, expatiating on the necessity laid upon England "to conciliate the national sentiment of Ireland." Bulwer-Lytton on the Crimean War, Lord Beaconsfield on the Berlin Congress, Gladstone on the Beaconsfield Ministry are, in the light of present events, painful or suggestive reading. A speech by Cobden on free trade is opportune even fifty-four years after delivery. We must, if not regarding Great Britain, at least regarding the rest of the world, add the free-trade question to that of the Irish as still, after the lapse of half a century, unsettled. We trust Mr. Wagner's volume is not a clumsy effort by the Cobden Club to disseminate its opinions!

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Ollivier, Émile. Marie-Madeleine: Récit de Jeunesse. Paris: Garnier Frères; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
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CONCLUSION OF THE TWELFTH VOLUME AND SIXTH YEAR.

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